The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 18, 1897.

The Week.

SENATOR MORGAN withdrew his Nicaragua Canal bill on Wednesday of last week in a spirit of frenzy the like of which has seldom been witnessed outside of Bedlam. He stormed against Great Britain, against Nicaragua, and against Senator Sherman by turns, and declared that although the bill was defeated for the present, he should introduce it again at the beginning of the extra session and do all in his power to pass it. While flouting the incoming Administration in the person of its Secretary of State, he invoked the aid of the President-elect to help him along with his plan to force a canal upon Nicaragua without her consent. This is the first time in the history of the world, we believe, in which the proposal has been seriously made by one country to build a canal in another country without a charter and against the written protest of the latter country. It is the first time, also, that it has been proposed to extort permission for the expenditure of money in a foreign country by abusive and threatening language. Of course this is not the last of the Nicaragua Canal, but it must be the last of this bill unless the whole Senate and Government of the United States have gone crazy.

The debate in the Senate on this bill has been exceedingly wholesome. The speeches of Senators Turpie, Vilas, Daniel, and Caffery were extremely able and thorough. It is to be regretted that all the labor of defeating the bill was thrown upon Democrats, and all the consequent credit reaped by them. The reason why no Republican Senator took part in this work is not easy to understand. Although Senator Sherman did favor the abandonment of the bill because it could not pass, he said that he should vote for it "in any shape in which it was likely to be presented." Senator Hale expressed himself decidedly against it, and rebuked Morgan for his unmannerly and intemperate language towards Nicaragua and towards Great Britain, but he made no set speech against the bill. The division in the Senate seemed to be principally between those who wanted to consider the Clayton-Bulwer treaty obsolete and those who did not—between those who desired a canal for purposes of peaceful commerce, and those who desired it for purposes of irritation and discord, or were willing at all events to go with those who wanted to stir up discord by means of it.

The vote in the Senate, on Monday, on Mr. Morgan's motion to take up his resolution abrogating the Clayton-Bulwer treaty throws light on the policy and plans of the opposition to the McKinley Administration. This opposition consists of all the factions that united in support of Bryan in the last election. Their policy is to be that of obstruction. Only fifteen working days of the session are left. The large appropriations have not passed. The Bankruptcy bill, the Pacific Railroad bill, the Loud bill, and other measures deemed important by large interests throughout the country are awaiting action. The calendar is overcrowded and the Senate is rushing toward the 4th of March with every prospect of a hopeless gorge. At this juncture Mr. Morgan solemnly offers a resolution on an abstract question; for, however pertinent it might be at other times, it is irrelevant after the withdrawal of the Nicaragua Canal bill. Of course such a motion is intended to consume time, and on a test vote the Senate sides with Morgan, and takes up this irrelevant resolution to the prejudice of all other business, including the Arbitration treaty. Some Senators who are known to favor the ratification of the Arbitration treaty voted with Morgan, and, therefore, the vote cannot be considered a test as regards that measure; but it points to the carrying of the treaty over the present session, which will perhaps not be the worst thing that could happen. It also points most clearly to the policy of obstruction and deadlock, and it goes far beyond the matter of the Arbitration treaty. The theory of the silverites of all grades and belongings is that, if hard times continue, they will be able to carry the elections of 1898 and 1900. McKinley is pledged to restore prosperity. If for any reason he does not do this, he and his party will be bowled out—so the Bryanites think. Even though their own obstruction to public business is the cause of the trouble, the penalty will be visited upon the party in power, since the people look only to results and do not concern themselves much with details and processes.

There are encouraging signs of a determination among the Republicans in the House to suppress the international monetary-conference scheme which Bill Chandler, with the help of Chairman Jones of the Democratic national committee, recently carried through the Senate. Two New England Representatives took occasion last week to announce themselves for the maintenance of the gold standard and against any more compromises with the silverites. Mr. Knox of Massachusetts declared that the country is upon a gold basis, that it will doubtless continue on that basis, and that it will not initiate an international bimetallic conference. Mr. Hill of Connecticut was even more emphatic in the recent meeting of the House coinage committee. He declared plainly that the Senate proposition is an attempt to bring about the things which the Republican party voted down at the last election—the free coinage of silver and a double standard of value; that the proposition is thrust upon the incoming President by a Senator who bitterly and virulently opposed his nomination; that Mr. Chandler had been sustained and seconded by the chairman of the national Democratic committee; and that no obligation to take such action rested upon the Republican party by reason of any deliverance at St. Louis, because "the stilted phrases of a platform dictated by half-mature thought in June should be read in the blazing light of the November victory." Another Republican member of the committee, Mr. Brewster of this State, characterized the pending bill as "a trap by the enemy to put the next President in a hole." These Republican protestants against the bimetallic folly in Congress find warm support in the press of their party.

There was a suggestive debate in the House last Saturday on the sundry civil appropriation bill. It was begun by Mr. Cannon, who called attention to the fact that, although the bill appropriated $8,000,000 less than the estimates, it carried $17,500,000 more than the same bill of last year. The reason for this is that the monstrous river-and-harbor bill of last year, which the President vetoed and which Congress passed over his veto, provided for contracts for work running over a period of four years, and made certain yearly appropriations necessary. It was not discretionary to withhold the money. It was a very temperate observation on Mr. Cannon's part that, if he could have had his way, he would have waited for an increase of revenue before committing the Government to so large an increase of expenditures; "but," he added, "Congress thought differently." After some discussion on the items of the bill, the debate drifted to the question whether the deficiency of revenue was due to the McKinley tariff or to the Wilson tariff, and Mr. McMillin of Tennessee improved the occasion to give figures showing the progressive decline in revenue under the former measure. These figures, taken from the annual reports of the Secretary of the Treasury, were summarized as follows: "That the McKinley act, during the first four years of its operation, so far failed to produce the revenues necessary for running the Government that the net deficiency for four years was $30,704,000." In addition to this, the sum of $54,207,975, a balance of money deposited in the Treasury by national banks to redeem

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their circulation, which had been previously kept as a trust fund, was turned into the Treasury as spending-money and used up. Mr. McMillin's presentation of facts was "taken hard" by Mr. Grosvenor of Ohio. "The McKinley law," he replied, "was producing a surplus year by year until Almighty God, for some purpose that he has never yet made known to the American people, menaced the future of this Government by the election of Grover Cleveland and a Democratic Congress." This explosion, says the *Record*, was greeted by laughter.

The Chicago *Times-Herald* says that the Board of Trade of that city is now convinced that the Interstate Commerce law is worse than useless, that the evils it was designed to remedy have increased under its operation, that discriminations in rates are as great as ever, but more difficult to be traced, and that public opinion no longer sustains it, but demands its repeal. The effect of the act, it says, has been to concentrate the grain-shipping business in the hands of a few large firms, discriminating against the small shippers in whose behalf and for whose protection the law was originally passed. One method of discrimination, for which there is no possible remedy, is that the railroad managers give notice privately to a few large shippers of any intended reduction in rates, and thus enable them to buy up all the grain in advance and hold it till the change of rates is officially announced. Thus the small shippers are as effectually excluded as though discriminations in rates were allowed between different shippers. It does not exactly follow that because the law does not prevent discriminations between different shippers, therefore it is of no value at all. It is true that these discriminations were the cause of the enactment of the law in the first instance, but many other things, good, bad, and indifferent, were embraced in it. The anti-pooling clause is perhaps the worst feature of all. This is considered one of the most potent causes of secret discriminations. If no railroad could gain an advantage by discriminating, it would cease to discriminate. A bill to repeal the anti-pooling clause was before Congress two or three years ago, was favorably reported by a committee, and actually passed by the House, but failed in the Senate for want of time. It is to be hoped that the Chicago Board of Trade may lead the way to the early revival of that measure.

The sudden collapse of the steel-rail pool, with the fall in price of rails from $28 to $18 a ton, should make two classes of our statesmen think even harder than their wont. Trust-investigators must sigh as they see their best efforts eclipsed in a day by simple business conditions. No legislative committee was striking terror to the heart of the steel-rail pool. No laws were threatening them from Washington—in fact, Mr. Dingley and his fellows were hard at work to give the pool a law which would enable them to keep up their prices and withstand the wicked foreigner who might try to ruin an American industry by offering rails at $25 a ton. But in one day the railroad situation and competition send the price crashing down 35 per cent. Suppose a Trust-destroying committee had produced such a result, what pæans would have been sung, how the press would have clamored! But the inevitable march of improvement and reduction of the cost of production do the work, and we shrug our shoulders and pass it all off as a fresh instance of the machinations of capital. But the tariff-makers—how particularly silly they look in the light of steel rails selling at a profit at $18 a ton! Why, McKinley had to give a protection of $12 a ton in 1890, else we should all have been ruined and he never would have been President.

There is much speculation, not as to what the Trust investigation will result in, but as to its object. Why did Mr. Lexow begin it? One theory, and the prevailing one, is that it is meant to cover up, or direct attention from, the Payn blunder; but the Payn blunder was one of those things which cannot be covered up or forgotten any more than the Hill-Maynard blunder. The evidence thus far throws no light on Lexow's deep-seated designs. What it has brought out is that certain persons sell lower than other persons in the same business, and thus ruin their competitors. The way of meeting this by law Lexow has not as yet revealed. Trusts that are corporations can be got at by dissolving the corporations, but Trusts which consist simply of single persons or of partnerships are exactly like Macy & Co., or the Siegel-Cooper Company; that is to say, they are simply persons with large capital, who are driving smaller dealers out of the trade by their lower prices and greater command of money. This process has been going on steadily in all the countries of the world for fifty years. It involves hardships for the small men, but benefits for the consumer. It is one result, and one not altogether pleasant to contemplate, of the working of the principle of competition. It is true that we as a nation have by our tariff declared solemnly against competition. We legislate to keep the market for certain persons. We are enabled to do this easily through our customs duties. But how are we going to keep the small dealers on their legs? There is no way except to give them bounties, or compel the large dealers by law to charge higher prices. But the Constitution stands in the way of such drastic measures. These are the only effective defences against private Trusts that occur to us. Of course direct oppression of small dealers can be punished, but this must be rare. The worst thing that can be done to a small dealer—undersell him—is not punishable. Possibly in the recesses of Lexow's mighty mind some more effective preventive is being devised, but we cannot guess it, and the investigation does not reveal it. There is no reader of mediæval history who is not familiar with the road on which the little man is travelling.

The Bureau of Statistics published on Tuesday its report of the export and import trade of the United States during January. Exports of the great cereal staples frequently decrease during the first month, and merchandise imports usually show a proportionate increase. The result is ordinarily to reduce the excess of exported merchandise to a comparatively low figure, which in the course of two or three months more gives way to a large excess of importations. Exports of breadstuffs did, in fact, decrease last month some $4,673,648 from December's record, contrary to our experience in January a year ago. The cotton exports of last month similarly decreased $11,899,494 as compared with the month preceding. Chiefly as a result of these reduced shipments, the total merchandise export for last month falls $22,243,035 below the phenomenal December record. But the change is so far normal to the month that the January exports of 1897 are $8,000,000 in excess of 1896, and make up the largest total export for the month ever recorded except in 1892, after the huge American crop and European harvest failure of 1891. Meantime the country's import trade has continued almost as light, comparatively, as it was in the closing months of 1896. The January importations prove, in fact, to have been $6,628,918 *less* than the imports of December; they fall below the January import trade of 1896 by more than $17,000,000. As a necessary consequence, the foreign commerce of January has added materially to the already enormous merchandise trade balance in our favor.

To the general public the most important feature of the five-years' agreement between Yale and Harvard, just signed by plenipotentiaries of the two institutions, is the provision that "all contests, with the exception of rowing races, shall take place on college grounds." A similar rule can hardly fail to be adopted by Yale and Princeton for their future meetings. With the enforcement of this radical change, the most serious objection to college athletics as practised of late years will disappear, since we shall be spared the spectacle of young men, nominally engaged in obtaining an education, drawing crowds of city idlers to bet upon their chances of winning a match. The permanent subsidence of the "athletic craze" is plainly marked by this evidence that college men have at last recovered their

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senses, and now appreciate the discredit they have brought upon the cause of education by their excesses.

A Spanish statesman, Señor Moret, in a lecture before the Madrid Ateneo, asserted that the ignorance of American politicians in matters relating to Spain is incredible. Unfortunately for us, he proved his assertion by citations from the escapades of Senators Sherman, Morgan, Cullom, and Cameron; and, as *Dogberry* says, having been clearly proved, it will shortly be believed. Sherman's blunders are historic, but then (we think Señor Moret ought to have explained) he is ready on demand to alter sentiments that do not suit, and to correct his history and international law according to the exigencies of the hour. As for Morgan, his name and fame have reached Spain in a way to delight his soul. We understand that in Barcelona to call a man "a Morgan" is a form of the deadliest insult. Sailors on shore will put up with many kinds of abuse, but they will not stand that. No, we cannot blame Señor Moret if he charges American politicians with ignorance on the Cuban question. But let him observe their refreshing silence of late. Many a man has gained a great reputation for wisdom by looking preternatural things and saying nothing; and how gladly would we all attribute wisdom to the Senate on those terms!

Dr. Theodor Barth delivered a lecture last month before the Liberal Electoral Union of Berlin on the practical working of American politics, which is published in the Berlin *Nation* of January 23. Dr. Barth will be remembered as the intelligent visitor who was in this country during the closing weeks of the Presidential campaign, and whose forecasts of the result shone so brilliantly by the side of those of the cock-sure English bimetallists who favored us with their presence and their prophecies. Largely confining himself to dry exposition, the lecturer showed a familiarity with the ins and outs of primaries and conventions, the machine and the boss system, which would be surprising in any foreigner, and seems especially astonishing in a German. Our very political catchwords and humbug phrases Dr. Barth has at his fingers' ends, and expounds, for example, the great principle of "harmony in the party" for the benefit of rogues, as one to the manner born. The boss of New York he describes as an "uncommonly crafty" person, "one Platt" (*ein gewisser Platt*), and the New York Legislature he truthfully declares to be made up of "Platt-creatures" (*Platt'schen Kreaturen*). Almost pathetic is the way he pictures the great body of peaceful citizens (*die grosse Masse der ruhigen Bürger*) as entirely without part or lot in the political control of their parties, and bewildered, while growingly angry, at the boss system. Dr. Barth's assertion that Americans are every day more anxious to have done with bosses, and only waiting to be shown some way to smash them, is one of the best proofs he gives of his close observation of our political life. Bad as are the conditions he is forced to depict—our specific kind of political corruption and our boss system—he yet denies that Germans have any reason, on the whole, to vaunt themselves over us. The quiet submission of an intelligent people to a reactionary set of young Prussians, such incidents as the Tausch press scandals and the Brüsewitz military murder, make American public life seem, by contrast, says this frank German, "a higher form of civilization."

The sugar bounties which M. Méline is getting the French Chamber to vote by such narrow and precarious majorities, are defended by two arguments. The first is the famous per-capita argument. The price of sugar will go up, of course, but the increase will not amount to more than ten cents a head. Think of people objecting to a burden of 10-365 of a cent a day! How petty such a fraction makes them look. Some other tax also will be required to pay the bounties, but trust us to find that. Anyhow—and this is argument number two—we have got to do it in order to get the better of Germany. She pays a bounty of 50 cents the hundred kilos. We will pay one of 80 cents, and where will she be then? Some scoffers in the Chamber, like M. Méry, pointed out the declining consumption of sugar in France, and asked if the main object was to produce sugar or to have and enjoy it. He affirmed that the English were the only ones to see the point of the joke, as they were laughingly saying that they got all the sugar—consuming four times as much per capita as the French—and let the other fellows have the industry. But this poor-spirited point of view was treated with the contempt that it deserved. It is well for us to accustom ourselves to these powerful arguments for bounties, as we shall hear much of them when Congress gets to work on the tariff again.

Since the massacre of Scio in 1822, none of the Greek islands has given the Turks so much trouble as Crete. After many insurrections, it got a sort of constitution in 1866, but this did not stop the insurrections, because the Turks were constantly violating it or failing to carry it out. In the meantime, Crete lying so near Greece, the Christians, who are in a great majority, have been continually longing for annexation to Greece, and they made a frantic application for this to the Powers at the Berlin conference in 1877. But Disraeli was afraid to weaken Turkey, and the others did not care. So the mutual bickering between the Turkish authorities and the Christians has continued, varied by occasional little wars and massacres. It was supposed some months ago that the Turks would fulfil their engagements, but they have not, and now there is more war, in which the Greeks are crazy to take part. The end might have come fifty years ago but for the policy of minimizing by England every concession made to the Christian population of Turkey. The horrors of the Greek war of independence were ended by a battle which the British Minister spoke of afterwards as an "untoward event," and the sternest reprimands and discouragements were sent to the Bosnians and Herzegovinians and Montenegrins when they rose in 1876. It has long been the policy of the Philo-Turks to treat the discontent of the Christian population with Turkish rule as in some sense criminal, if it results in agitation or revolutionary attempts, because it "endangers the concert of the Powers," as it does now.

The independent line taken by Greece in behalf of the Cretan uprising, apparently in half defiance of the Powers, might easily lead to more serious consequences than it probably will. While the European concert has been called a "syndicate for peace," it might also become any day a syndicate for war. That possibility is what has been creating uneasiness in business circles on the Continent, leading to the difficulty, which has been reported from different money centres, of putting through contracts of any magnitude. It is all very well to tell bankers and investors that the Powers are bent on a peaceful solution of the Turkish question. That they may well believe, and yet have a reasonable fear that the chapter of accidents may unexpectedly produce war. What they have pointed to as most likely is some fresh massacre or some uprising in Macedonia. The sudden determination of Greece to annex Crete does not seem to have figured in any of the forecasts, yet it is precisely one of those unforeseen events which have been feared as likely to result in a great war. But, as we say, that result does not now seem probable. The Powers, if earnestly resolved to keep the peace, will easily be able to keep it despite this flurry. But what they must be sharply reminded of by this somewhat spectacular outbreak is the fact that the evil of Turkish rule is one that cries to Heaven for remedy, and that it is their business to apply it speedily and effectively. That, and the fact that, as Mr. Gladstone telegraphs, they "have characters to redeem," cannot now be lost sight of in all their delicate and difficult negotiations. One thing they have done very thoroughly, if nothing else—filled the whole Levant with the belief that the fall of Turkey is near at hand, that she is tottering, and that a little push would send her over.

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COL. BLISS AND THE PRIMARIES.

COL. BLISS'S letter to Gen. Tracy which appeared in the *Evening Post* of Thursday last, met the prophecies of Messrs. Tracy and Low, that in some mysterious way better men will get into the Municipal Assembly in Greater New York than have got into such bodies in our cities during the past forty or fifty years, by affirming that neither party will present as its candidates men who ought to be intrusted with the powers given. Col. Bliss agreed also with the view we have taken, that the surest way to provide good government for the enlarged city is to proceed along the line of experience, and vest the powers of government in our Board of Estimate and Apportionment and heads of departments, which are as truly representative of the people as the proposed Municipal Assembly. Important, however, as was the letter touching the character of the Municipal Assembly, it was still more important as regards our nominating system. Col. Bliss is an expert in the management of this system. He has worked in it and over it for more than twenty years. He knows all about it as it exists and has existed in this city. Twenty-five years ago, if we had complained of its results, he would have asked us scornfully whether we went to primaries, and what we knew about primaries, and he would then have loaded us with abuse for complaining of primaries without going to them. There was a theory afloat about that time, nor is it yet by any means extinct, that all abuses in the American government were due to the absence from primaries of the well-to-do classes, and that as soon as they put in a regular appearance at them, the nominations would become satisfactory. We are afraid to say offhand that Col. Bliss himself held this theory at that time, though we timidly believe that he did, and that we could prove it, but we decline to do so.

His confession, therefore, that respectable people will not go to primaries, and that, if they did, they would find there a cut-and-dried nomination prepared beforehand, of which they in all probability could not possibly approve, and that any municipal legislature produced there would be unsatisfactory, is a very important contribution to current political discussion. It is not important only for city affairs, but for State and national affairs. Platt, Gov. Black, Payn, the State Legislature, and the New York delegation to Congress are all the work of primaries. Nay, they are, as far as this city is concerned, the work of notoriously fraudulent primaries. We know of no proposition in politics so plain as that no improvement in the quality of our legislative bodies can be expected as long as the present mode of nomination for office is persisted in. The device of throwing the protection of the law round them, from which some people expect a great deal, will evidently prove futile, because, as Col. Bliss shows, people will not attend them, whether legal or not. Lauterbach will be there, the Progressive Gruber will be there, and the Trojan Van Allen will be there, and the Wicked Gibbs will be there, but the average busy citizen will not be there, because he will feel certain that he will be unable to influence the result, and because he has other things to do. To get him to vote at elections, unless in times of great excitement, is hard work; to get him to vote for the nomination of somebody for office, when he knows his vote will count for nothing, will be simply impossible.

In short, Col. Bliss's letter is an admission, coming from a responsible quarter, that our nominating system, after seventy years' trial, has broken down. But it has not simply broken down. In its present dilapidated condition it is carrying our Government to destruction. It is creating bosses all over the country, and putting the State Governors and Legislatures, and therefore the United States Senate, within their control. And these Governors and Legislatures have consequently become indifferent to public opinion—ostentatiously indifferent—to a degree, we venture to assert, never before known in a parliamentary country. In New York to-day we have a boss, a Governor, and a Legislature to whom the remonstrances of the church, the press, the colleges, the boards of commerce and trade, the instructed classes—in other words, the chief organs of civilization in every country—simply afford food for merriment. That Gov. Black meant to designate the utterances of these classes and corporations by his terms "intolerant criticism" and "irresponsible clamor," there can hardly be a doubt. Little by little, year by year, we have seen our government drifting away from the leading agencies of healthy progress, or even peaceful progress. We know that, emanating from primaries, it can hardly do otherwise.

Nevertheless, in the teeth of the plainest facts of the day, we have the Charter Commissioners proposing to extend and perpetuate the power of the primary over our affairs, and they are even bold enough to predict that the officers the primary turns out will improve, the larger the area over which they rule and the more money we give them to handle. The solemn truth is, that the chief work before reformers to-day is the contrivance of some mode of nomination which will give the voters of each party a free choice of candidates and will open wider the gates of public life. From public life nearly all our talent and character is now excluded. You find it everywhere else, in our colleges, in our railroads, in business, but you do not find it in politics. And if you ask nine-tenths of the men of character and talent, whom you think peculiarly fitted for office, why they do not take office, they will tell you that the vexations, uncertainties, and base compliances of the primaries and conventions are too great, that to get in and stay in, they would have to keep on good terms with the degraded and corrupt animal known as the boss. The other tenth could not get in if they wished to do so. In other words, the nominating system is too odious to them.

THE TARIFF MUDDLE.

Two events of prime importance to the coming tariff bill have taken place during the past week. One of these is the breaking of the steel-rail pool, the other is the final disagreement of the wool-growers and the woollen-manufacturers on the subject of the rates on raw wool. Both these events must, we think, have a considerable influence on public opinion; that is, on that portion of the community which is in a wavering state of mind regarding protective tariffs in general, and opposed to the very high duties of the McKinley tariff of 1890. Among these Mr. McKinley himself may perhaps be counted at the present time. Certainly a very large division of his supporters in the recent election may be placed in this category.

The breaking of the steel-rail pool and the reduction of the price of rails from $29 to $17 per ton is an event of almost startling significance. It discloses two facts that the tariff-reformers have long insisted upon, namely, that rails can be made in this country as cheaply as anywhere in the world, and that the effect, if not the purpose, of the protective duty is to enable the rail-makers to charge more to the domestic than they do to the foreign buyer. The sudden fall of $12 per ton, and the rushing business that the mills are doing at the reduced rate, are ample confirmation of another doctrine held by the tariff-reformers, that the prohibitory duty which has generally prevailed enables the "combine" to make enormous and unjust profits in times of business activity, when the demand for rails exceeds the domestic supply, whereas, if foreign rails could be bought at such times, the price would never much exceed the cost of production with a fair profit added. Some of the trade journals which are not under the influence of the combine have, during recent years, repeatedly warned the rail-makers that they were standing in their own light, and that a day of reckoning could not be much longer averted, meaning that the public would some day be angry enough to tear down the whole tariff, so far as they were concerned, and leave them to fight the competition of the world without any protection whatever.

The outcome, however, has been quite different. The long period of dulness in the mills has broken the combine, and they are now selling at prices below the reach of European competition. Under the present conditions a protective duty is worthless. It is a mockery, an insult

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to common sense, a stigma on the intelligence of the people who tolerate it. If the demand for rails should exceed the producing capacity of the United States, then the tariff would enable the combine to recombine and charge higher prices than they ought to have; but this is not likely to happen. The room for new railway construction is a restricted area, while the power to produce rails is limited only by the capital and inventive skill of those engaged in the business. This is the cause of the breaking of the pool, and it is pretty safe to say that the break will not be repaired, at all events that the old prices will not be restored, very soon. The object-lesson is a very useful one.

The disagreement between the Ohio combine that calls itself the National Wool-Growers' Association and the National Association of Woollen Manufacturers promises to cause more trouble to the tariff-makers at Washington than the broken steel-rail pool. Indeed, there is no reason why the latter should cause any trouble, since they can simply ignore it altogether. They cannot ignore the fact that Judge Lawrence and his coterie demand rates of duty on raw wool which the manufacturers absolutely refuse to agree to. The history of this disagreement goes back to the year 1883, when the wool-growers, under the lead of this same coterie, demanded certain rates which they did not get. It was their persistent clamor for higher rates that led to the McKinley tariff of 1890. Without them there would have been no such bill, no political upheaval in the autumn of that year, and no defeat of Harrison in 1892. The whole tariff enormity that broke the back of the hitherto patient public was piled on top of the wool schedule of that year. Even then the Ohio coterie were not satisfied. No sooner was the bill passed than they began to find fault with it and to threaten this and that unless the rates were raised. The only result of their mendicancy was the repeal of all duties on wool in the Wilson bill. That this repeal has been a blessing to the country there is no doubt, but, of course, it did not allay the cravings of Lawrence & Co. They have been as persistent and grasping as ever, and have presented the following schedule of rates as the minimum of their demands:

"Twelve cents a pound on class 1 and class 2 wools; double duty on washed, and triple duty on scoured; 8 cents a pound on all carpet wools, and double and triple duty on washed and scoured, and 3 cents a pound additional duty on all skirted wools."

Upon this exorbitant and insufferable schedule a two days' conference has been held at Washington with the woollen manufacturers, who offered to concede 8 cents on class 1, 9 and 11 cents on class 2, and 32 per cent. ad valorem on class 3, or carpet wools; the last-mentioned rate being that of the McKinley tariff, which nearly ruined the carpet-manufacturers. The Philadelphia *Press* issued a very moving appeal to the wool-growers not to ask too much from the manufacturers, but to keep within bounds, alleging that the manufacturers wanted nothing but what was fair, that they were guided by wise counsels and moderate desires, and that they only asked living rates. The effect of this pathos was *nil*, for the wool-growers abated not one jot of their demands, and the conference ended in a total disagreement. We fear that the arguments addressed by our esteemed contemporary had a tendency to steel the hearts of the wool-growers, for the *Press* began by telling them that they were "struck down" by the Wilson tariff and that they are "utterly prostrate"; also, that their prostration has been "one of the most potent factors in the disastrous depression of the past four years." If the wool-growers believe this, they will naturally fight all the harder for the tariff they want. But if they were really prostrated by the Wilson tariff, why did they bring to market 270,000,000 pounds of wool in the year following the passage of it? That does not look much like prostration, and they might not know the dreadful condition they are in unless the newspapers reminded them of it from time to time.

Lawrence & Co. may think the world will come to an end if a Republican tariff is enacted which is not agreeable to them. Yet such a thing has happened before. It happened in 1883, and the party prospered fairly well until 1890, when the wool-growers had their innings, or thought they had. Probably Chairman Dingley would like to present a schedule of wool and woollen duties to the House and say, "This is what both the parties in interest have agreed to." It would be very much in the line of precedents to assume that any agreement for distributing the plunder of the consumers of woollen goods must be satisfactory. Alas, this is not possible now. One or the other must be disappointed, and we think that Lawrence will be that one. At any rate it is a very pretty quarrel as it stands, and the public are likely to get some advantage out of it in the end, even though there may be a temporary increase in the price of woollen goods.

THE GOVERNMENT AS A PUBLISHER.

THE Senate has become such an ingenious machine for blocking good and expediting vicious legislation that one specification more or less seems hardly worth making. But a bill now sleeping the sleep of death in a Senate committee is so suggestive both of the stupid confusion and waste attending Government business and of the dead mass of prejudice and inertia that has to be dynamited out of the way of the most simple and rational reform, that comment upon it is a public service. We refer to House bill No. 8237, "To improve the printing and binding methods of public documents." This bill was the conception of Mr. F. A. Crandall, Superintendent of Documents, and was by him submitted, in the first place, for examination and criticism, to all the members of Congress, all the publishing bureaus of the Government, all the depository libraries, and to one thousand private citizens who had shown an interest in public documents. Approved almost unanimously by them, it passed the House on May 7, 1896, with several minor changes. But it could not get out of the committee in the Senate last session; it is now asserted that it cannot this session. Senators declare that Superintendent Crandall and Public Printer Benedict have not displayed the requisite "tact" in urging the bill. So they are bound to strangle it.

But if not "tact," Mr. Crandall has at least displayed force and lucidity of exposition in his account of the belated and benighted methods at present in vogue in the Government Printing-Office. This he has done in his second annual report. The methods in question are forced upon the Office by antiquated laws. It was to cure their absurdities, and the chaotic practice that has grown up under them, that his bill was introduced. It did not call for the appropriation of a single cent, nor cut off a single book now printed. It simply proposed to introduce order and simplicity into a department where chaos and old night now hold sway, to make Government publications more speedily available and convenient to all concerned, and to do it at a great saving of time, temper, and money. To urge such a bill upon the Senate, as at present constituted, is of itself a "tactless" thing to do, we confess, and we must no doubt submit for the present to a continuance of the inveterate evil.

What a huge and needless evil it is, Superintendent Crandall shows to demonstration. Take the matter of delay in publication. The extreme to which this has gone in the census reports is generally known. But there are other series of Government books in which the hair has almost equally grown in the shaving. In fact, says Mr. Crandall, "as a rule the libraries get their books anywhere from one to seven years after Congress has had them, and usually long after their current interest has quite evaporated and they have passed into the dry-as-dust stage of their existence." For example, a sheep-bound volume containing the receipts and expenditures of the Government in 1889 reached the libraries last summer. This was at the very time when all Government documents bearing on public finance were in eager request, and when the sending out of such moss-grown volumes seemed a peculiar impertinence. "At this date," writes the Superintendent, the depository libraries have not received "a single document of any kind appertaining to the Fifty-fourth Congress. They have not had a Congressional Directory since the first

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session of the Fifty-third Congress, nor a Consular Report since that for August, 1892, which they received in February, 1895. . . . They have not received the annual report on the Mineral Resources of the country for the years 1891 and 1892, though they have received it for 1893."

The deadly pains taken to bury official information under misleading tombstones (they cannot be called titles), and to shoot out masses of unindexed rubbish for the vexation of the baffled inquirer, Mr. Crandall illustrates by many examples. In Washington there are "living indexes" who know how to thread their way through the mighty mazes without a plan that are called 'Messages and Documents,' or some other jumbling name, but, failing such aid, the investigator is soon lost in the labyrinth. The Superintendent tells of a caller from Omaha in quest of a certain document, to whom he remarked that what he wanted was in the depository library at Omaha. The Nebraskan replied that he knew it, and that the local librarian had offered to help him find it, but that a short hunt in the amorphous mass had convinced him that "the quickest and cheapest way to get that book was to come to Washington for it, a journey of a thousand miles each way."

The duplication and hopeless confusion of Government reports, under the present headless system, are enough to make a private publisher's hair stand on end. Librarians and indexers they seem designed to kill outright. Mr. Crandall's exhibit here, which he assures us is only one of many equally flagrant, is worth reproducing. It is the report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs for 1894. Following are the various disguises and aliases of this volume:

[First—Bureau edition.]

Title-page: "Annual report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs. 1894. Washington: Government Printing-Office. 1895."
Back title: "Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs. 1894."

[Second—Department edition.]

Title-page: "Annual report of the Secretary of the Interior for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1894. In five volumes. Volume II. Washington: Government Printing-Office. 1894."
Back title: "Report of the Secretary of the Interior. Vol. 2. 1894."

[Third—Message and Documents edition.]

Title-page: "Report of the Secretary of the Interior; being part of the message and documents communicated to the two Houses of Congress at the beginning of the third session of the Fifty-third Congress. In five volumes. Volume II. Washington: Goverment Printing-Office. 1894."
Back title—"Message and Documents Interior Dep't. Vol. 2. 1894-5."

[Fourth—Sheep bound Congressional reserve edition.]

First title-page: "The Executive Documents of the House of Representatives for the third session of the Fifty-third Congress. 1894-'95. In thirty-five volumes. Washington: Government Printing-Office. 1895."

This is followed by a general index to the thirty-five volumes of executive documents, filling eighteen pages, and then by the—

Second title-page: "53d Congress, 3d session, House of Representatives, Ex. Doc. 1, Part 5. Report of the Secretary of the Interior; being part of the message and documents communicated to the two Houses of Congress at the beginning of the third session of the Fifty-third Congress. In five volumes. Volume II. Washington: Government Printing-Office. 1894."
Back title: "House Executive Documents, 3d sess., 53d Cong., 1894-'95. Vol. 15. Report of the Secretary of the Interior. Vol. 2—1894. Indian Affairs."

Remember that the contents of these volumes are, in all four editions, precisely the same, and that three out of the four titles give not the faintest idea of what is in the book, and then remember that the Senate falls back upon its dignity and demands the most delicate "tact" in asking it to put an end to this monstrous absurdity!

We regret being unable to give more of Mr. Crandall's piquant report. But we advise everybody to read it who wants to see the supernatural wisdom of "the State" in actual operation. The United States is the largest publisher of books and maps in the world; yet it goes on in blind adherence to wasteful and brainless methods that would wreck a private publisher in one week. To introduce the slightest and most obviously rational improvement is a labor of Hercules and a work of years. The liberality of Congress in voting money to put valuable information in the hands of the people is frustrated by statutes and regulations that compel inefficiency and extravagance and confusion worse confounded. We shall get the needed changes in time, if Mr. Crandall despairs not and keeps battering away at senatorial *Dummheit*. But with "the State" making such a sorry mess of the publishing business, we hope it will be some time before it goes into railroading or telegraphing or canalling.

COMMERCIAL ACTIVITY IN EUROPE.

THE remarkable results of the foreign commerce of the United States in the past year have been noticed in these columns, and the favorable features dwelt upon. How far these results reflect general or special conditions can be determined only by comparing them with the trade of other countries during the same or nearly similar period.

In the twelve months of 1896 the United Kingdom imported from her own possessions and foreign countries merchandise to the value of £441,807,335, a gain of £25,117,677 over the imports of 1895, and three times the increase of 1895 over 1894. The increase was about 6 per cent., apparently a small one, but of high importance in so large a trade movement, representing nearly one-half the value of the raw cotton annually exported from the United States. True, the United Kingdom was obliged to make large purchases of food in the past year, and to that one item more than £7,500,000 of the increase was due. The increase that remains points to greatly improved conditions in industry and commerce, for in no class of imports, whether raw materials or manufactured products, whether articles of necessity or of comfort or luxury, is a decreased movement recorded; and in every class but one the increase is notable. When the trade books were closed for 1895, it was found that the increase of movement over 1894 had been irregular, and in most classes the increase was by the hundreds of thousands; in 1896 the increase is regular and general, and is measured by the millions of pounds. The imports of metals showed a decrease of £405,682 in 1895 and an increase of £1,808,744 in 1896. The imports of raw materials for the textile industries increased by £146,803 in 1895 and by £3,996,355 in 1896; for other industries, by £1,023,568 in 1895 and £3,216,343 in 1896. So far from pointing to crushing and continuing depression in manufactures, the trade returns indicate an increased demand for raw materials in the great manufacturing industries. This would not have occurred had all confidence of holding their own at home and abroad been lost among the manufacturers. Fair-traders, if any of that description remain, get up periodical scares over the competition endured by English industries with those of continental Europe, and they may point to the fact that the imports of manufactured products increased in 1895 by £6,700,606 and in 1896 by £5,649,260. But against these figures must be placed the greater imports of raw materials, the necessary basis of British industries and export trade.

The figures of the exports only confirm the better aspects at home and abroad. The markets of the United Kingdom, being free to the products of the world, are distributing centres for these products. If industrial conditions at home are in a bad way, the outward movement of the raw materials imported would show an increase. A greater quantity or value would be sent where a better demand existed, and sold even at a sacrifice to relieve the home market. This was the condition in 1895. The exports of foreign and colonial merchandise rose from £57,961,534 to £59,970,763, an increase of £2,009,229. In 1896 not only was this increase wiped out, but £1,464,000 more was retained at home, presumably for home use. The exports were only £56,466,465.

With this sign of improvement may be considered the exports of British and Irish produce and manufactures. In two years the value has risen from £215,824,333 to £239,922,209, and of this increase the larger part, £14,032,193, occurred in the last twelve months. Since 1894 the exports of yarns and textile fabrics increased by £9,374,807, and of metals and machinery by £8,510,464—figures that do not point to very sorry conditions of these great interests. It would be interesting to show how this larger export movement has been distributed throughout the world, but it must suffice to say that it is

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not from the United States that the greatest demand has originated.

Turning to France, the comparison must be based upon the returns for eleven months of each calendar year, which are, however, sufficient to convey a general view of the tendencies. The values of the imports increased 5.2 per cent., or not far from the percentage given by the British movement. The improvement is more marked in French imports than in British, for the imports into France in 1895 were more than 5.3 per cent. less than in 1894, a difference for which prices could not account. That French manufacturers look for better conditions is seen in the larger imports and the decreased exports of raw materials of manufactures. Yet the flow of finished products to foreign markets was only 2.5 per cent. greater than in 1895, showing an increased consumption at home, or an anticipation of a demand to be made in the near future. The total exports of French products of every description mark an increase of 2.6 per cent., against an increase of 11.8 per cent. in 1894. The point to be dwelt upon is the greater imports, which may be taken as evidence of a more hopeful feeling, if not a present realization of greater industrial activity.

Germany presents a striking contrast to France in foreign commerce. The French protectionists have for years been increasing the rates of import duties with the avowed object of becoming independent, as far as was possible, of other countries. To make such a policy effective, foreign trade must be discouraged, and the opinion of those best fitted to judge is that the policy has been carried so far as to narrow and cripple the commercial movement of France, depriving her of her proper share in the world's trade. Certain it is that Germany has in foreign commerce far outstripped France, and is to-day the type of the aggressive merchant, taking every advantage offered in foreign markets, and making a market in the face of keenest competition. True, Germany has made concessions to her agrarian party, and has adopted both corn and bourse laws, and granted bounties direct and indirect on production and navigation, as well as on some exports. All this is costly, and in the end will prove a grievous charge upon the taxpayers who foot the bill. At present, the stimulus is felt in industries and in shipping, and methods of selling have resulted in enlarged trade. The German trade returns, as printed monthly, do not state values, but weights, which makes it impossible to compare them with the French or English. Both exports and imports for the eleven months of 1896 showed a large increase over 1894 and 1895.

England, France, and Germany thus manifest a decided improvement in both imports and exports in the last year. The United States gives a remarkably large export movement, and quite as remarkably small an import. Merely from the commercial aspect this is not so wholesome an indication as is found among our European competitors; yet so long as the currency question remains unsettled, it is well to have the appearance of being able to draw gold from Europe in payment of a trade balance in our favor.

THE MADOX-BROWN EXHIBITION.

LONDON, January 26, 1897.

BY name, at least, Ford Madox Brown is probably better known to-day than he was during his lifetime. In the various books about the Pre-Raphaelites and Pre-Raphaelitism, issued within the last few years, he has figured so prominently that it is impossible any longer to ignore the part he took in one of the most memorable art movements of the century. But the many who now recognize his power and influence are scarcely more familiar with his work than were his sceptical contemporaries. It is true that his "Christ Washing Peter's Feet," his noblest and perhaps most beautiful painting, is now in the National Gallery. But this is the one important example in any public collection in London, though, of course, there are a few drawings and water colors at South Kensington. It is in Manchester, rather, where a series of designs by him decorate the Town Hall, and some of his cartoons and one at least of his most famous canvases hang in the Corporation Gallery, that a just idea is to be formed of his actual accomplishment, and, unfortunately, few people think of travelling to that big commercial town to study art. Before his death, even, little had been seen of his work for many years in London. He had long ceased to send to the Royal Academy, which had invariably treated him with something like contempt, the very masterpiece now in the national collection having been skied when submitted to Academicians, and he had not organized an exhibition of his own since 1865. Only very occasionally, as in the Arts and Crafts show of last autumn, has any pretence been made to represent him, however inadequately. For this reason the exhibition of his work just opened at the Grafton Gallery, the first attempt to collect his drawings and cartoons and paintings into one comprehensive and representative whole, is of unusual interest. Moreover, one feels that the collection has been ordered—according to his preferences—entirely independent of the aid or patronage of the Royal Academy, upon which is usually supposed to devolve the duty of honoring England's great artists after their death. He himself resented bitterly the action of Academicians in preparing the Rossetti show of 1882; despite years of indifference, to see them "swooping down on poor Gabriel's works," lent, he wrote to one of his daughters, "new terrors to death." But in his case the Academy has proved more consistent, refusing to hang even one of his pictures in their exhibitions of "Deceased British Masters." The present show has been organized by Mr. Ford Madox Hueffer, who but recently published a very entertaining and sympathetic biography of his grandfather, and who, perhaps, of all men, is the most competent for the task.

Certainly his selection has been so wise and intelligent that the collection enables one to study Ford Madox Brown's career, stage by stage, beginning with the copies of old masters belonging to his student years, and finishing only with the last illustration designed immediately before his death. You can see the work with which, practically, he made his first appearance in England, the big cartoon, "Spirit of Justice," for the Westminster Hall competition of 1845, when he had for rivals, among others, Dyce, and Maclise, and Etty; the cartoon which Haydon thought the only thing in the competitive show worth looking at, "a figure of Justice, and is exquisite as far as that figure goes." Here, too, are the "Parasina," "The Study in the Manner of the Early Masters," and the "Wicliffe on his Trial," painted when he first found a manner and method of his own—pictures that roused the young Rossetti's enthusiasm and led him to write that letter to Ford Madox Brown which was the commencement of their life-long intimacy and, incidentally, really of Pre-Raphaelitism. It was the letter of the story every one by this time has heard; its enthusiasm so surprising the elder artist, used as yet only to ridicule and scorn, that his answer was an immediate visit, himself well armed with a big stick, to the supposed scoffer and player of practical jokes. Then, again, there are the landscapes, "English Autumn Afternoon," "Carrying Corn," in which he seems to have prepared the way for Monet. He was inclined, his grandson states, "to claim that he had started the '*Plein-Air*' school in France." But in his inordinate love of detail, he could not understand that the painter who would give a right impression of light and atmosphere, cannot have eyes as well for every single leaf and blade of grass. It is strange that while one thus discovers in him the germ, as it were, of *plein-airisme*, so, too, one can look to his paintings for that kind of realism usually associated with Bastien-Lepage, to whom, indeed, Englishmen of the so-called Newlyn school turned for models, all unconscious of what had been done virtually in their midst. The Manchester Corporation Gallery has lent the large picture "Work," which was undertaken, Ford Madox Brown himself explained, to prove that the British workman "was at least as worthy of the powers of an English painter as the fisherman of the Adriatic, the peasant of the Campagna, or the Neapolitan lazzarone"—that is, he saw beauty in the British "navvy," just as Bastien thought to see it in the French peasant. The Manchester Town-Hall frescoes could not well be included; but some of the cartoons and two or three of the original small panels from which they were afterwards painted, are here; these giving an idea of the brilliancy of the color and the well-balanced composition which distinguished all the large decorations, with the exception, perhaps, of the last two or three, done when Madox Brown was quite an old man and his powers were somewhat failing.

Besides these more ambitious productions, there are numerous water-colors—some, like the little "King René's Honeymoon" and "The Younger Foscari," gems of color that Rossetti never surpassed; there are portraits in pastel, designs for stained glass, a long series of cartoons of famous men, illustrations (for, like Rossetti and Millais and Holman Hunt, he drew for the wood-engraver in the sixties and thereabout, the greatest period of English illustration); and there are many studies and sketches in pencil and pen-and-ink and crayon. In fact, no phase of his art is altogether neglected. There is even a cabinet decorated by himself, Rossetti, and Burne-Jones, to remind one of his connection with the house of Morris, Marshall, Falkner & Co.,

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for which, in his time, he designed not only stained glass, but tables and chairs and other pieces of domestic furniture.

Really, Madox Brown may be said to have heralded the decorative revival for which, as a rule, Morris receives chief credit, and to have originated the idea of the Arts and Crafts Society. He was designing furniture before Morris had come up from Oxford, and attempting to exhibit it in a gallery before the Pre-Raphaelites had sufficiently emancipated themselves from academical tradition to encourage the attempt. It is no wonder that Mr. Hueffer thinks his misfortune was to have anticipated "the 'psychical moment' with everything that he did." The catalogue itself is further proof of this curious feature of his career. Where possible, it is copied from one he issued for his own show in 1865, in which the title of every picture is followed by a long account of the subject and an explanation of its meaning and moral—an example but too closely followed at Toynbee Hall and in other quarters where every picture is supposed necessarily to contain a moral and a text for a sermon.

To pass thus rapidly in review the life-work of Ford Madox Brown is to begin to understand the reason of his large influence upon a few artists, his utter inability to interest others or to please the public. However his art may have been modified or developed by time, in one main essential it continued unalterable to the end. You may divide his work into the three stages generally adopted, since it seems inevitable that every artist should be given his "periods"; you may point to the early paintings in which the influence of the Antwerp and Paris studios where he studied still lingers; to those that succeeded, marked by the fanatical respect for detail that compelled him to work out each separate leaf on the lilac bush he painted until his diary fairly groans under the task; to the latest, characterized by a sensuousness that prized color above accuracy, though, let me add in all haste, accuracy was never on that account discarded. To accept these divisions, however, is not to blind one's self to the fact that the painter throughout his life—when student, when inexorable realist, when colorist—was always, from first to last, an independent, an innovator. By temperament, clearly, he could never have been anything else; but the chances are that his escape from academical or classical leading-strings was all the easier because in Antwerp he studied under Baron Wappers, a leader of Romanticism in Belgium, and because in the artistic Paris of his student days—1840 was the date of his first going to Paris—individuality was the battle-cry of the Romanticists. From Delacroix to Devéria, from Corot to Célestin Nanteuil, from Millet to Gavarni, there was scarce one of them who was not seeking to express his individuality—even if he had no individuality to express, as sometimes happened—whether in painting or etching, in lithography or drawing for the wood-engraver. For what other reason had the red symbol of revolution been flaunted some years earlier at the Comédie Française, for what other reason had young rebels pledged each other over the Byronic skull drinking-cup of that little café in the Champs Élysées? Madox Brown, young and impressionable, a rebel too by nature, could not have remained quite impervious to the prevailing tendencies of the schools and studios. There was a certain something in the atmosphere to stimulate and quicken his growth—so effectually that when he returned to England, still a mere youth, he was fully equipped to startle a decorous Academy by his independence.

When it is remembered to what depths, of bitumen and commonplace, painting in England had then sunk, the daring of his revolt will be all the more appreciated. How could men like Mulready and Egg and Eastlake and Grant be expected to sympathize with a young unknown painter bold enough to be entirely original in composition and color and treatment, as Madox Brown was from the time he first tried to exhibit in London? No amount of abuse and contumely could weaken him; because he was misunderstood, his individuality was no less dear to him. Whatever he might not be, he could always remain himself, and this was his uncompromising attitude throughout life. The result is a strength, a vitality, a vigor in his work which enforces respect even when one is disposed otherwise to be critical. For the truth is, as is often the case, the determination to maintain his individuality in face of opposition sometimes forced him to extremes. You feel this when he overloads his landscape with tedious superfluous facts, when he insists too peremptorily on the story he is telling or the lesson he is preaching; when, in his portraits, his desire to be scrupulously faithful in giving a likeness, in painting every hair in a beard, every fold in an ugly gown, leads him to forget that his sitter is a living human being made of flesh and blood, and not cast-iron; when his preoccupation with detail leaves him no eyes for the aspect of the scene before him. You begin to question if it is worth while for the artist to be individual, to be independent, if it is mainly to achieve ugliness or eccentricity. You read of the endless labors of Madox Brown over this picture or that, of the sacrifices he made and the discomforts to which he was put, that he might paint out-of-doors, that he might obtain the right models; and then you consider how much better many another painter, with infinitely less trouble, would have suggested actual character.

Take, for instance, "Work," a masterpiece in its way. It shows British "navvies" busy in a Hampstead street; men and background alike studied on the spot. But the men are not really good types, not one of them; Charles Keene, with a few lines, could have given a far more truthful portrait of the British workman. And so conscientiously did Madox Brown copy their rough working-clothes and tools, so much meaning did he pack into the little group, that he forgot to include them in the picture; they have absolutely no relation to the rest of the composition, to the figures of Carlyle and Kingsley, on one side, so well enveloped in atmosphere; or to the two women in big bonnets and crinolines, on the other, who keep their place so admirably within the frame; or to the man and woman on horseback in the middle distance, who serve to divide the light from the shadows; or to the street, with its line of sandwich men, just below in such true if difficult perspective. Here, indeed, is a very serious fault in a painting. And yet the sincerity—if one can venture on a sadly abused word—the dignity of the composition, you feel, would make up for even more glaring defects. And this dignity of composition is seldom missing from any of his designs. He could *fill* a canvas as Barry, I think it was, once said to Haydon, with far less reason for the compliment. He knew how to give a fine decorative arrangement without the prop of classical convention, and he could afford, as most artists cannot, to treat it humorously when he chose. For humor was one of his predominant qualities. One is not surprised to learn that a favorite book with him once was 'The Adventures of Tyll Eulenspiegel.' There is hardly a picture, however serious in motive without its element of fun as naïve as that of the mediæval artist who decorated the cathedrals and churches of Europe, and not to be overlooked in any, even the slightest, estimate of his art.

Another thing which the collection at the Grafton Gallery proves conclusively is that the influence of Ford Madox Brown was as keenly felt in his immediate family circle as among the Pre-Raphaelites. Work is shown by his children, Mrs. Hueffer, Mrs. William Michael Rossetti, and Oliver Madox Brown, and it is amusing to see how devotedly all three deferred to him as to a master. More than this, one or two of the sketches by the son convince one that, had he lived, he would have been a still greater man than the father. But it is useless to speculate on the might-have-been, especially since Ford Madox Brown himself, as the exhibition establishes triumphantly, is sure always to be ranked among the few great English artists of the nineteenth century.

N. N.

Correspondence.

CHILD MEMORIAL LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I announce, through your columns, that a memorial library is soon to be established at Harvard University in honor of the late Prof. Child? Prof. Child felt in his teaching the need of a special library which should give students of English literature free and convenient access to a much larger collection of books than can be kept on the shelves of the general reading-room in the Library of the University; and he had in mind the founding of a special library through subscription. The endowment of such a library in his name seems, therefore, the most fitting way to perpetuate his memory as a teacher and a scholar.

The committee in charge of the plan began its work some weeks ago by private letters to persons who would naturally feel a peculiar interest in such a memorial. The response to these letters has been both generous and cordial, and the subscriptions amount to $9,500, besides a considerable number of valuable books. The capital will be placed in the hands of the Corporation, and the income only will be expended. Each book will be marked with a book-plate specially designed for the Memorial Library.

The sum already subscribed insures the success of the plan. I write to inform Prof. Child's friends and pupils about the Memorial, and to give all persons who wish to join in it an opportunity of doing so. Gifts of money or of books may be sent to Mr. J. H. Gardiner, No. 18 Grays Hall, Cambridge, Mass.

L. B. R. Briggs, for the Committee.

Harvard College, Cambridge, Mass.,
February 13, 1897.

ONE OF CHAUCER'S SOURCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some time ago I pointed out the fact that Chaucer used a French version of the *Consolation of Philosophy*, ascribed in the MSS. to Jehan de Meung, to help him in his *Boece* (vide the *Academy* for Sept. 21, 1895, p. 227). Although the evidence on this point is

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conclusive, as will appear from the parallel-text edition of the two which I am now preparing for the Chaucer Society, there are many passages in Chaucer's translation where he does not slavishly follow Jehan de Meung, but displays a scholarship surprisingly independent for one who knew so little of the rudimentary principles of Latin grammar. For, despite many assertions to the contrary, the *Boece* shows mistakes numerous enough and great enough to condemn as unfounded any aspirations its author may have had to be considered a good Latin scholar, even when judged by the standards of his time. How, then, did he manage to translate the difficult metres whose subject-matter is often tortuous with scholastic logic, and whose language is recondite with frequent reminiscences of Virgil's Georgics?

The solution of this problem, which I find in the Paraphrase and Commentary wrongly ascribed, at least in its present state, to Thomas Aquinas (vide Obbarius, *de Consol. Phil.*, Jena, 1843, Prolegomena, p. xlix), throws an unexpected light on Chaucer's literary history.

It must be borne in mind that a large part of the instruction given in the Middle Ages was imparted through compendious glosses and scholia on well-known classics. Of these Boethius was one of the most popular. It will be remembered how King Alfred cut his teeth, so to speak, on the *Consolation*, and afterwards paraphrased it in Old English (vide William of Malmesbury Bk. II., § 122, in Rolls ed. I, 131).* Notker translated it into the Old High German with copious glosses; it was done into French five or six times during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries—in several instances, glosses, commentary and all; and it has been translated into English almost every century from Chaucer's time to ours. The commentaries which grew up about such texts were made to embrace pretty much all the learning of the time that had the slightest connection with the subject in hand.

Such a one was that which appeared in various forms during the fifteenth century, and was connected with the name of Thomas Aquinas. As it contains quotations from writers who flourished after the time of Aquinas, Obbarius suggested that the ascription of it to him might have been due to a confusion of his name with that of Thomas of Maldon, who died in 1404 (vide Tanner, *Bibl. Brit. Hib.*, p. 503, and Pitseus, p. 538): But, whoever wrote it, there is abundant evidence that both Chaucer and the French translator from whom he borrows, in making their Boethius translations, worked with it in a form not very unlike that which has come down to us through some of the early printed editions. It is also a striking fact that the Latin text used by Chaucer, in its departures from that of the other MSS. of Boethius, must have been similar to that of Codex Gothanus III. (Obb.), which was one of the earliest texts to be associated with the Aquinas Commentary.

Though this refers especially to the *Boece*, the matter has an interest more far-reaching, for many of Chaucer's Boethius quotations, which are very numerous (by no means all of them have as yet been pointed out) and are scattered all through his poems, are taken from the Aquinas Commentary, and not from his own *Boece*, nor yet from the Latin text; there are also traces in his work of his having made use of the Commentary independently of the *Consolation*.

Anything like a complete list of these indebtednesses to the book cannot, of course, be given here; but even the few instances cited below will show, I think, that indebtedness exists, and will not be without interest to those of the *Nation's* readers who read and love Chaucer.

(1) In *Troilus* I. 685, ff., Pandarus insinuates his friendship for the love-stricken youth, saying:

> "For no wight may bireve
> A man to love, til that him list to leve.
> And witeth wel, that bothe two ben vyces,
> Mistrusten alle, or elles alle leve."

In Aq. sig. l, ij (near top),* we have "Vtrumque enim vicium est, et omnibus credere, et nulli," as part of a quotation on Friendship from Seneca, Epist. iii., glossing "Amor dictat sua jura fidis sodalibus," the paraphrase of Boethius Bk. III., m. viii. (Obb. 40, 27). The conjunction of the two ideas in the *Troilus* is significant.

(2.) Again, in the *Tales* A, 1261-1267, we have:

> "We faren as he that dronke is as a mous;
> A dronke man wot wel he hath an hous,
> But he noot which the righte way is thider,
> And to a dronke man the wey is slider.
> And certes, in this world so faren we:
> We seken fast after felicitee,
> But we goon wrong ful often trewely."

In Boethius III., pr. 2 (Obb. 43, 18), we have the same idea: "Animus . . . bonum summum repetit, set velut ebrius domum quo tramite revertatur ignorat." But the note to this passage in Aq. (sig. m, i) is: "Nota quod sicut ebrius scit se habere domum sed . . . nescit quomodo ad eam redeat, sic homines aliquo modo in generali sciunt et cognoscunt summum bonum, . . . sed illi homines . . . nesciunt quo modo ad illud summum bonum peruenire possint." Here we see that Chaucer's only addition is "And to a dronke man the wey is slider." But what an addition! (For *summum bonum* "felicitee," see below, No. 4.)

(3.) In the *House of Fame*, 1920, Chaucer speaks of

> "An hous that domus Dedali,
> That Laborintus cleped is."

In Boethius the reference to the Labyrinth is "inextricabilem labyrinthum rationibus texens," Bk. III., m. 12 (Obb. 69, 1), Chaucer's own translation of which runs:

> "Thou hast so woven me with thy resouns the hous of Dedalus."

But the note to the passage in Aq. (sig. S, iij) is "Nota Laborintus dicebatur domus Dedali," which shows plainly that Chaucer, if he had Boethius in mind, copied the *Nota* and not the *Textus*.

(4.) In the description of the Frankelyn (*Tales* A, 334 ff.), he says:

> "Wel loved he by the morwe a sop in wyn.
> To liven in delyt was ever his wone
> For he was Epicurus owne sone,
> That heeld opinioun that pleyn delyt
> Was verraily felicitee parfait."

Cf. also the passage about Epicurus in E 2021.

> "Some clerkes holden that felicitee
> Stant in delyt."

In Bk. III., pr. 2 (Obb. 43, 13) Boethius writes: "Epicurus summum bonum voluptatem esse constituit." But the note thereto is (sig. m, i): "Epicuruei posuerunt felicitatem consistere in voluptatibus scilicet in crapula luxuria." Here Chaucer imitates the wording of the note and couples it with the Frankelyn's wine-drinking—"scilicet in crapula luxuria."

(5.) Again, in *Troilus* I., 637 ff., Pandarus displays his learning:

> "By his contrarie is every thing declared.
> For how might ever sweetnesse have be knowe
> To him that never tasted bitternesse?"

We have this in Aq. (sig. l., iv.) as note to Bk. III., m. 1 (Obb. 41, 5): "Dulcior est apium mage labor si malus ora prius sapor edat." "Unde poeta—Dulcia non meminit qui non gustauit amare. Namque per oppositum noscitur omne bonum." This passage, both in Boethius and the *Troilus*, is very near to No. 1, and seems more closely related to the Commentary than to the *Romaunt of the Rose* 21819 ff. (Ed. Meon) (cf. *Anglia* xiv., p. 241).

(6.) Again, in *Troilus* I., 1065 ff., Chaucer uses the figure—

> "For every wight that hath an hous to founde
> Ne renneth nought the work for to beginne
> With rakel hond, but he wol byde a stounde,
> And send his hertes lyne out fro withinne
> Alderfirst his purpos for to winne."

In Aq. (sig. y., v., back) (words not found in Boethius I have placed in parentheses): "Sicut enim artifex (puta edificator) formam faciende rei (sicut domus) mente percipiens (*i. e.* prospiciens) movet (*i. e.* producit) effectum operis."

MARK LIDDELL.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., January 29, 1897.

THE VENUS OF MELOS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I see in the *Débats* of December 13 last a note on the Venus of Melos which, basing its conclusions on entirely incorrect data, comes naturally to an unjustifiable reconstruction of the statue. It adduces a diary of one M. de Trogoff, an *aspirant* on the ship *Espérance*, who, it is pretended, saw the Venus in its perfect state, etc., a month before the arrival of Dumont d'Urville, who rescued it from the Turkish authorities.

This new evidence is, if not a pure mystification, a pure fabrication, as is clearly shown by the official correspondence on the subject. I saw in 1861 the then French consul at Melos, M. Brest, the son of the consul who saved the statue from the Turks; and his account, he having been present when the statue was discovered in its niche, is absolutely contradictory of this new evidence (?). M. Brest, the father, bought the statue when found of the peasant who found it, and the fact that no French ship was in port at the time is clearly proved by the other fact, which results from the official documents, viz., that the Turkish authorities had seized it and put it on board a Turkish ship which was about to carry it to Constantinople, when it was rescued by Dumont d'Urville just then arriving. The fact that the arms were not found with the torso is proved by the subsequent researches of the elder Brest to find them, as shown in the official correspondence of the day, and the statements of the younger Brest (in every respect in accordance with the published documents of the time) are confirmation of them too strong to be questioned by any such doubtful evidence as that given by the hypothetical M. de Trogoff. If M. Salomon Reinach would take the trouble to look into the records of the navy, which must still be accessible, I think he would be able to show that the supposed M. de Trogoff is a fiction. At any rate,

*For that seems to be the natural inference from Malmesbury's words and the connection in which they occur.

*My citations are taken from the edition of Boethius's *Consolation* printed at Cologne by Henry Quentell in 1493, which I happen to have. Prof. Norton, who possesses also an excellent codex of the *Consolation* written late in the thirteenth or early in the fourteenth century, has a copy of the printed edition of 1491 (Argentina), which Quentell followed very closely, the signatures of the two differing by one page.

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the unquestionable passage of the history of the discovery, that the statue was taken possession of by the Turks and that its rescue by D'Urville made a diplomatic difficulty at the time, shows that no French ship-of-war was in port when the discovery took place.

The elder Brest, in his last days, under the suggestion of people who had theories to establish, made some curious variations from his original official report, one of which made the niche in which the statue was found a Byzantine chapel; but at that age the memory is subject to all kinds of vagaries, and the documentary evidence of the time cannot be impeached by the late and unsupported statements of the "aspirant" or of M. Matterer. The younger M. Brest, who has lately died, was a man in the prime of life when I saw him at Melos, and his recollection of the matter not only was in agreement with the statements of the original official documents, but was confirmed by another man of Melos, who for many years was the official pilot of the American men-of-war which went to Melos as a station for supplies. If there is anything absolutely determined by the contemporary and official evidence with regard to the finding of the statue, it is that it was found without the arms, and the bringing forward testimony of a purely apocryphal character like that of M. de Trogoff, unconfirmed in the least detail by the unquestioned official documents of the time, is trifling with archæology.

The niche shown to me in 1861 was a rude recess in a garden terrace-wall, intended to serve at the same time as a support to the higher ground above it and to form the boundary of the field in which it was; no structure or signs of building were to be seen near, and it was a long distance from the unfinished theatre, of a Roman date, with which it has been sometimes sought to establish a connection for the statue. There were no ruins of any kind there, and the statue had evidently been simply hidden there. The whole wall was so unsubstantial that when I went, a few years later, to photograph it and the niche, it had entirely disappeared - as M. Brest assured me, owing to excavations in search of antiquities. My second visit was in 1879 or 1880, and the reminiscences of M. Brest perfectly agreed with what he told me in 1861. All the details are to be found in my 'On the Track of Ulysses,' of which I have not a copy accessible at this moment; and they were written down while I was yet fresh from my conversation with Brest.

Now, what is more to the point is the fact that Brest had not got the official documents at my first visit, and therefore could not have based his version on them, but gave me his personal recollections, which were clear and precise, as they generally are with people who read little and write less. He knew nothing of the discussions which have since heated the world of archæology on the subject, and had no temptation to confirm anybody's views. His absolute agreement in all essential particulars with the official correspondence, which I did not at that time myself know, is confirmatory evidence of the strongest character that the arms were never found. When they cleared out the niche, they hoped to find the arms at the bottom of it, which they would not have done had they been in their place.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

ROME, February 2, 1897.

THE BURNING OF NORFOLK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In connection with Mr. William Henry Sargeant's communication, in No. 1649 of the *Nation*, regarding the joint responsibility of British and Americans for the burning of Norfolk in 1776, the following passage from Hildreth's 'History of the United States,' vol. iii., pp. 117-118, may be of interest:

"After a descent on the eastern shore of Virginia, to whose aid marched two companies of Maryland minute men, being reinforced by the arrival of a British frigate, Dunmore bombarded Norfolk. A party landed and set it on fire. The town was mostly built of wood, and that part of it nearest the water was rapidly consumed. The part which escaped was presently burned by the provincials, to prevent it from becoming a shelter to the enemy."

A footnote to the brief account in Holmes's 'American Annals' (ed. 1805), vol. ii., p. 368, concludes:

"The provincials themselves destroyed the houses and plantations near the water, to deprive the ships of every source of supply."

Mrs. Mercy Warren's 'History of the American Revolution' (ed. 1805) has a similar note (vol. i., p. 203), but less positive:

"It has been asserted by some that the inhabitants themselves assisted in the conflagration of Norfolk, to prevent Lord Dunmore's retaining it as a place of arms."

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

BOWDOIN COLLEGE, February 13, 1897.

EXAMINATIONS FOR ENTRANCE TO GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to correct a misleading statement on the part of "A Californian Teacher" in your columns with regard to the entrance examinations for German universities. It leaves the impression that the result of such examinations is dependent upon "a board of Government examiners," and not on the teachers of the particular high school from which the candidate is about to be graduated.

The examinations for admission to the universities are held at the high schools (*Gymnasia, Realgymnasia, Oberrealschulen*). The examining board consists of the teachers of the senior class (*Prima*) of the school, a Commissioner of Education (*Schulrat*) of the Province, and, in case the school is not exclusively supported by the Government, a representative of the patron of the school. In the absence of the Commissioner of Education, the principal (*Director*) of the school takes his place in the examining board. A number of topics for the written examinations preceding the oral examination are proposed by the several teachers of the high schools. From these topics the Commissioner makes his selection. Both written and oral examinations are conducted by the teachers of the high school, the latter in the presence of the Commissioner. The successful passing of the candidate, however, is exclusively dependent upon the votes of his own teachers, and not subject to the approval of "a board of Government examiners." * * *

Notes.

THE BERLIN PHOTOGRAPHIC COMPANY, No. 14 East Twenty-third Street, New York, has in preparation 'The Masterworks of the Prado Museum at Madrid,' consisting of 110 photogravures from the original paintings.

Shortly to appear is a 'Review of Historical Publications relating to Canada [in 1896, together with some of the more important publications for 1895]', edited by Prof. George M. Wrong of the University of Toronto, with able collaboration. The term "historical" will embrace books of travel and exploration. The work will form Number 1 of a series of "University of Toronto Studies in History." The publisher is William Briggs, Toronto.

A correspondent at Florence of the *Frankfurter Zeitung* says that it has now been decided to publish the letters of Michael Angelo, more than 600 in number, in the Archivio Buonarotti, and that the first issue is to appear soon. Although Symonds, when he wrote his biography of this artist, had access to the carefully guarded treasure, very much of great interest remains which he could not use. These letters are pronounced extremely vivid and entertaining. In one of them is enclosed a note from Clement VII. urging Michael Angelo to make haste with what he had in hand, "for you know that Popes do not live long." The unpublished letters will also throw new light on the bitter controversy between Raphael and Michael Angelo.

The corporate name of the Joseph Knight Co., Boston, has been changed to L. C. Page & Co., the business remaining as heretofore.

The judicious buyer has choice of two new reprints of 'Sartor Resartus'—one in the liberal and elegant "Centenary Edition" of Chapman & Hall (New York: Scribners), with steel-engraved portrait of Carlyle after Lawrence; the other in the Athenæum Press Series, under the particular editorship of Prof. Archibald MacMechan of Dalhousie College. The latter is intended not for mere pleasure but for study, to clear up the dark places, and to compare "this spiritual biography and the actual life of Carlyle." Accordingly the fairly open text of 271 pages is supplemented by an introduction of 59, and 130 of notes, while Carlyle's index is attended by an index to the notes and introduction. This is very thorough and painstaking work and will be sure of general appreciation. Even what Prof. MacMechan calls the "few holes in *Sartor's* coat which remain to be neatly darned," are pointed out for more fortunate investigators by the sign "not identified."

Mr. Charles Dexter Allen, author of 'American Bookplates,' publishes a new book on his hobby, called 'Ex-Libris: Essays of a Collector' (Lamson, Wolffe & Co.). It contains much miscellaneous information on the subject, and a number of handsomely engraved copper-plates, of which one, designed by Bewick for Joseph Pollard of Newcastle, and a modern American plate, by Howard Sill, for Mrs. E. M. Gallaudet, are the most pleasing. The edition is limited to 750 copies, and is sumptuously printed. The "essays" are hardly of the readable kind.

The Werner Co.'s 'New American Supplement to the Latest Edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica,' of which we have the first of five volumes (A, B), does not pretend to follow the scheme of the parent work. While it indulges in a certain number of general articles, it is mainly compiled on the dictionary plan, and it admits biographies of living persons, with no great strictness as to eminence. Some of the articles are signed, and with good names, but men of real learning and grasp do not always shine in encyclopædic condensa-

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tion. Prof. Pattee's article on *American Literature*, for example, does not reflect the excellent qualities of his 'History of American Literature.' The article on *Architecture* is not written by an ignoramus, but it is quite inadequate. Of the hack-work the article on Thomas Benton may serve as a specimen, for style, lucidity, and trustworthiness. Slovenly English abounds, as, under *Bunker Hill*, "The name of the battle is a misnomer. It was fought on Breed's Hill." The pen-and-ink portraits are very ordinary work. We remark in this volume a list of Agricultural Experiment Stations, an account of Building and Loan Associations, and a Bible text in 242 languages.

Dr. W. T. Harris's 'The Spiritual Sense of Dante's Divina Commedia' first appeared in 1889, and has now been reissued, without substantial alteration, by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. There have not been many moderns, in these days of critical editions of Dante, who have troubled themselves at all about such matters. We have all been inclined to make philology, or art, or literature out of a work which the author very clearly intended to be a much more serious matter, and Dr. Harris has been almost alone among recent writers in setting his face like a flint against all that would draw him away from the study of Dante's fashion of conceiving man, his acts, his destiny, and his permanent relation to the universe. Most of us doubt the essential truth of Dante's opinion as to man's relation to society and to God, and we may differ equally at times with Dr. Harris's idea of Dante's conception; but to look at Dante's solution of the problem of free-will and sin through Dr. Harris's eyes is a great help to the clarifying of one's own thought and to the understanding of Dante's most vital doctrines. The book is naturally hard reading.

Dr. Scartazzini again enters the field of Dante literature with a book that at last shows him at his best. His somewhat whimsical judgment often led him astray in his elaborate commentary; his versatility has always counted heavily against him; and his multitudinous handbooks for the study of Dante, though convenient and valuable, have proved in the long run less valuable than they seemed at first sight likely to be. But the present thick volume, the first part (A-L) of the 'Enciclopedia Dantesca' (Milan: Hoepli), a "critical dictionary of all that relates to Dante's life and works," has decided merits. The alphabetical arrangement insures order and facilitates reference (none of the handbooks had an index), and the plan enforces brevity and tends to encourage impartiality. The volume is well printed and strongly bound. It serves in part the purpose of a concordance as well as of a dictionary and an encyclopædia, contains a great deal of bibliographical information, and should recommend itself generally to students of Dante.

A recent careful examination of the Provençal and early Italian theories of love, on which Dante's own theory largely depended, is embodied in Mr. L. F. Mott's 'The System of Courtly Love, Studied as an Introduction to the Vita Nuova of Dante,' an essay presented in candidacy for the doctor's degree at Columbia University (Ginn & Co.). The author not only has mastered more completely than his predecessors a very tangled subject, but has expounded it in a thoroughly clear and orderly fashion, with sympathy of thought and grace of expression. It is strongly to be hoped that he will continue his studies far enough to include Petrarch and the extension over Europe of Provençal and Petrarchan influence.

'Forschungen zur ältesten Geschichte von Florenz,' by Robert Davidsohn, is a sort of appendix of 186 pages to vol. i. of his 'Geschichte von Florenz,' already noticed in these columns. It consists of original documents, and enters into a minuter explanation of some obscure events.

'Die Marcus-Säule auf der Piazza Colonna in Rom,' by Eugen Petersen, Alfred von Domaszewski, and Guglielmo Calderini (Munich: Bruckmann) is a magnificent folio, containing text and 128 plates of photographic reproductions of the figures on the column erected to celebrate the victories of Marcus Aurelius over the Marcomanni and other German tribes. The difficult task of photographing the different groups on a large scale has been successfully accomplished, and the explanations in the text are admirably thorough and scholarly.

A well-deserved tribute to a versatile and exceedingly modest Orientalist is Prof. O. Weise's pamphlet entitled 'Der Orientalist Dr. Reinhold Rost, sein Leben und sein Streben' (Leipzig: Teubner). For more than twenty years Dr. Rost was Director of the Library of the East India Office in London, and no one who ever had occasion to use the rare treasures of that unique collection of books and manuscripts will forget his extreme kindness and courtesy. His knowledge of Oriental languages was extensive and peculiar, and he was very conscientious and thorough as examiner in Sanskrit for the Indian civil service.

'Le Parthénon et le Génie Grec,' published by Armand Colin & Cie. (Paris), is the reissue, under a new title, of a work entitled 'Philosophie de l'Architecture en Grèce,' published in 1870. The author, M. Émile Boutmy, is a member of the Institute and present Director of the École Libre des Sciences Politiques. The book is one of those able, readable, and misleading studies which a very intelligent man makes upon a subject with which he is not very familiar. Greek architecture is a subject which has to be understood by a projection of the mind into a vanished past. The monuments have perished, except for formless ruins, their color has left the walls, the sculpture with which they were adorned has been thrown down or wrenched away. The mental image we form of the Greek temple is a highly elaborate structure, built up of many inferences resting upon the dicta of many expert writers. It will not do, then, for the literary man, the sociologist, the publicist, to assert or act upon the belief that, however little trained he may be in art criticism, he is yet free to write down and publish his impressions as a man of cultivation, with an inherent right to judge of those works which appeal to men of cultivation. The Parthenon is not to be judged of by men of cultivation, but only by those who have studied profoundly the important question what the Parthenon was. This, as the book shows, M. Boutmy has never done. It is greatly to be regretted that, before republishing his book, he did not subject it to the needed comparison with the results of modern archæological research—at the probable risk of non-publication in its present state.

Four essays presented in competition for prizes under the Hodgkins Fund of the Smithsonian Institution are now published and distributed: Argon, a new constituent of the atmosphere, by Lord Rayleigh and Prof. Ramsay; Atmospheric Actinometry, by Prof. Duclaux; The Atmosphere in relation to Human Life and Health, by F. A. R. Russell; and Air and Life, by H. de Varigny. The first essay justly received the great Hodgkins prize of $10,000. All the authors are Europeans.

A portrait of the late lamented G. Brown Goode is frontispiece to the handsomely printed 'Register of the District of Columbia Society, Sons of the American Revolution' (Washington, 1896), and testifies to his warm interest in an organization quite outside of his absorbing scientific pursuits. He died in his forty fifth year.

The *Beilage* to the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* for January 19 and 20 contains an article of nearly twenty columns by E. P. Evans, entitled "Zu den communistischen Bestrebungen in den Vereinigten Staaten," giving a condensed history of the attempts to establish communistic associations in the United States, and the causes of their failure. The chief cause, according to Prof. Evans, is the strong spirit of individualism as opposed to collectivism in the American people, together with a clear appreciation of the fact that capital and labor are forces not antagonistic, but cooperative in promoting the general welfare. There is no country in which the demagogic attempt to draw a line of demarcation between the "masses" and the "classes" is so difficult, and the attempt to array the former against the latter so absurd, as in the United States. The most prominent representatives of the so-called "classes" spring from the "masses," and their descendants, after a few generations, are often merged in the "masses" again. Nowhere else in the world is the process so rapid and continuous by which labor crystallizes into capital, and capital becomes fluid and fruitful, and flows back into the hands of labor through the channels of industrial enterprise.

American students will find it worth while hereafter to spend a few weeks or months at Frankfort, for the city has been so lucky as to secure for its public library the complete collection of books owned by the late historian and novelist Gustav Freytag. It includes no fewer than 7,365 volumes on the history of civilization in Germany from the fifteenth century to the present day, the result of decades of expert collecting. It is considered the most valuable addition ever made to the Frankfort library in the hundred years of its existence, and a special catalogue is to be printed. Freytag divided his collection into twenty-four departments, under the heads of superstitions, miracles, robbers, popular medicine and diseases, money and prices, customs and fashions, festivities, schools, military matters, the Church, songs, Thirty Years' War, etc.

A wide distribution is to be desired for the Report of the Mayor's Committee on Public Baths and Public Comfort Stations for New York City, of which committee the secretary is Mr. Wm. Howe Tolman, No. 105 East Twenty-second Street. A large amount of historical and statistical information is here brought together concerning both American and foreign experience in the lines indicated. The clearness of the matter is somewhat diminished by an eccentric typography, but on the other hand there are numerous photographic illustrations and a bibliography. The relation between intemperance and the absence of public-comfort stations is here suggested, and is likely to astonish those who have given no thought to the subject.

Public spirit in Providence, R. I., has always been deficient in comparison with the

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accumulated wealth of the upper classes, and in a city famous for its private libraries a free public library was long in being established. This institution was fortunate in securing from the start for librarian Mr. William E. Foster, whose intelligent and indefatigable administration has brought it to the pass where a new and adequate building is necessary. Efforts to raise a subscription to enable such a structure to be completed at once, came to nothing, but the alternative of building a part has now been removed by the outright gift of $200,000 from Mr. John Nicholas Brown of Newport. The design having been already prepared, erection can proceed without delay. It derogates nothing from the generosity of this gift to say that the Brown family is as appropriately the patron of public libraries in Providence as the Astors in New York.

During 1896, 188 women students matriculated at the University of Edinburgh; of these, 176 were enrolled in the faculty of arts, 3 in the faculty of science, 6 in the faculty of medicine, and 3 in that of music. Moreover, there were 54 non-matriculates, who paid the five shilling entrance fee — the majority for attendance on the music classes—while 68 women medical students were attending the extra-mural lectures with a view to graduation in medicine. In this connection, it is interesting to note that the first woman, Miss Martha Thomas, who competed for a scholarship in the department of arts at the University of Durham, was successful.

Somerville College, Oxford, has recently made a suggestive experiment in self-government, on the same line of educational development pursued by the men's colleges. It has admitted to "membership" those of its old students who have kept a residence of three years and taken an honor examination; thus giving them the right to share in the election of one-half of the Council. This is in line with the present regulations of the Oxford women's colleges as to diplomas and certificates, the agitation for opening the B.A. degrees of the University to women having shown the importance of giving women the opportunity of proving to the public, whose judgment will ultimately decide the matter, that they are qualified for the coveted degree, by examinations passed under regulations, both as to standing and as to residence, which are equally as rigorous as in the case of men students.

—The Harvard University reports for the past year offer nothing sensational. President Eliot himself discusses no special topic: Yet, as heretofore, the volume will amply repay reading by all educators and by all parents interested directly or indirectly in the higher education. Some general statistics pertain more or less closely to similar institutions; as that "nearly half of those candidates who do not offer Greek at admission fail to enter, and that 81 per cent. of all the candidates for admission offer the history of Greece and Rome rather than the history of England and the United States." (The substitutes for Greek are probably harder than Greek, comments President Eliot.) Again, the annual cost of continuations and periodicals is more than half the income from the invested funds of the Library, and is constantly increasing in proportion. Finally, "the evils of cheating at examination and of handing in copied work as original" have reached a pass where suspension and posting are proposed as the only effective remedy. The Dean's remarks on the subject deserve to be made a tract of. Nothing can be truer than his saying that "the curse of College morals is a double standard—a shifting, for the convenience of the moment, from the character of a responsible man to the character of an irresponsible boy." He instances the case of "ragging" street signs as simple thievery, though not acknowledged as such by students who would be quick to denounce and ostracize men caught stealing books from the Library (a standing evil at Harvard).

—For the second time, Radcliffe College figures on an equal footing with other departments of the University in these reports, and is referred to by President Eliot in his summary. Only eight of its thirty-one students who received the A.B. degree at the last Commencement, took it plain, without distinction. "The proportion of distinguished students," adds President Eliot, "was therefore much higher than in Harvard College, the examinations being precisely alike for the students of the two institutions." This would imply, perhaps, not greater ability, but greater seriousness and application, in the young women. We suppose there can be no doubt that they are really more mature, sex apart, and less childish than their male competitors; football and other manly sports to the contrary notwithstanding. The independent annual reports of Radcliffe College (issued since the University's) shows that the men must look to their laurels in scientific and historical investigation. Mrs. Agassiz enumerates several papers by advanced students printed by courtesy in the Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy; Mrs. McDougall's monograph on 'Fugitive Slaves,' and Miss Follett's on 'The Speaker of the House of Representatives'; Miss Davenport's 'Classified List of Printed Material for English Manorial and Agrarian History in the Middle Ages,' already cited for reference to his classes by Prof. Maitland at Cambridge, Eng.; and Miss Thompson's 'The Unity of Fichte's System,' read by request of Prof. Royce at his symposium of Harvard students. For such good work the means of publication by the College itself are as yet wanting. The Dean, Miss Irwin, dwells particularly on the need of a more adequate physical laboratory and a gymnasium; but departmental libraries and lecture halls and dormitories are also held up to the benevolent. Mrs. Agassiz pays a deserved tribute to Mr. Arthur Gilman as the mainspring, in its day of small things, of the College, with which he last September severed his connection.

—The volume of 'Collectanea: Third Series,' just issued by the Oxford Historical Society (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), is peculiarly rich in its contents, both mediæval and modern. It opens with some rolls of Durham College, the Benedictine foundation afterwards replaced by Trinity, including what is probably the earliest (1315) catalogue of books provided for the use of a society of students at Oxford, and one of the earliest (1428) inventories of college furniture; and among the seals figured in the frontispiece occurs one that is almost unique, that of a body of "parishioners" (1326). Then follows a very interesting set of more than a hundred hitherto unprinted petitions to King and Parliament, relating to Oxford in the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries. The nice things the editor of the volume, Prof. Montagu Burrows, a pillar of the Church and of the Conservative party, says of the editor of this particular portion, Miss Toulmin Smith, who has recently become the librarian of Manchester College, the new Unitarian Theological hall at Oxford, are pleasantly symptomatic of the changes taking place in the University. Part III. consists of some contemporary Latin poems, concerning the Town and Gown riots of St. Scholastica's day, edited by Mr. Furneaux with the care he gave aforetime to Tacitus; and Part IV. of a list of the 240 volumes given by William of Wykeham to his foundation of New College. Apropos of this latter, the just remark is made that the friars in their convents with corporate libraries had such advantages over the "unattached" secular students who formed the bulk of the university, that the collegiate movement was an absolute necessity if the friars were not to obtain complete control of the place.

—After this we leap over three hundred years, and come to a series of letters, of which the originals are in the Bodleian, from the second Earl of Clarendon to the Earl of Abingdon, Lord-Lieutenant of Oxfordshire, informing him of the course of Monmouth's rebellion. These are edited with all the thoroughness, exactitude, and complete knowledge of the time which are associated with the name of Mr. Charles Doble. They are followed by a history of the long and futile struggle of Dr. Newton in the eighteenth century to convert Hart Hall into Hertford College, which casts a welcome side-light on academic life. The attention of the English department of Harvard University may be drawn to the rule that "if any Undergraduate, having a *Genius to Poetry*, shall choose to make *Verses* instead of the *Theme* or *Translation* required of him, he may be indulged this Liberty, if the Principal shall think fit, and it shall not be found to draw off his Mind from serious Studies." We cannot refrain from quoting another charming passage, which breathes the patronizing humanitarianism of the century. Dr. Newton believed in early college closing, and the shutting out of latecomers. Otherwise, he moralizes:

"What becomes of the College Porter? Or rather as it should seem, Who cares a Farthing what becomes of him? But still, in a Christian Country, and especially in Colleges erected for Promoting *Religion* and *Moral* Virtue, a regard is to be had to the Happiness of the poorest Creature upon Earth; and tho' All cannot be made equally Happy in their Situations, yet every Condition of Life that can be made Easier, ought to be so. But, if this poor coughing Wretch must be raised out of his Bed, at every Hour of the Night, to answer to the unseasonable Knockings at the Gate of dissolute Men, who consider only what is agreeable to Themselves, and not what Others suffer, there is not a greater Slave in Turkey than a College Porter; and I pronounce that *He* or his *Deputy* shall die a Death immature."

The volume closes with an account of the printing inventions due to the ingenuity or patronage of Charles, Earl of Stanhope (1753-1816), and of his services to the Clarendon Press, from the appropriate pen of Mr. Horace Hart, the present Controller of the Press, forming an interesting chapter in the history of the typographical art. It will be seen that the collection touches an unusually wide range of interests, and it will doubtless be among the most frequently consulted of the publications of the Society.

—'Tales of Naples and the Camorra,' by the late Charles Grant (Macmillan), contains the records of a shrewd and original observer who loved the Neapolitans and the Naples of which he writes, and who has lavished upon these

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simple stories all his varied lore as to Neapolitan character, religion, and superstition. Merely superficial local color is, in these days, very easily acquired, but here we have something unique, an intimate and sympathetic knowledge of the *lazzarone*, the *galantuomo*, and the *camorrista* which it seems almost miraculous for an Anglo-Saxon to have acquired. Indeed, the preface confirms what these stories suggest, that the author's long residence at Naples made him the close and confidential friend of a numerous circle in just those humble Neapolitan homes from which a foreigner, and especially an Englishman, is, as such, naturally excluded. Mr. Grant's artistic method is distinctive. The four stories, or sketches, as he calls them, hang together, each one going deeper than its predecessor into the heart of the matter, until in the final story, "Domenico," there is a culminating plot which has a certain connection with the three preceding tales—the whole group forming a sort of novel-writer's tetralogy, and culminating in the tragic retribution which visits Domenico. This *camorrista's* career is pictured with startling sureness of touch, and we are, accidentally, as it were, placed in possession of all the secret ways and works of the Camorra. In such a setting Domenico, who without it would still be a masterpiece of character painting, shows forth as a consummate villain whom it is by no means possible always to abhor, and with whom we sometimes feel an involuntary and most compromising sympathy.

—Dante's pretty little treatise 'On the Vulgar Tongue' (*De vulgari eloquentia*) has had a singular history. It did not see the light until 1529, and then only in an Italian translation. The original Latin was published half a century later, but it is really only within a few years that any attempt has been made to prepare a thorough critical edition of the text. A facsimile of the Grenoble MS. was published in 1892, and Dr. Moore, the first expert to treat the text at all, made use of it in revising the treatise for his edition of the complete works of Dante. What is doubtless the definitive edition, however, now lies before us in the four hundred and odd crown-octavo pages of the first volume of the Italian Dante Society's projected critical edition of Dante's complete works (Le Monnier), on which the learned editor, Prof. Raina, has been employed for many years; the quaint fragment of Dante's philological observation and imagination quite lost in the engulfing mass of modern erudition. This, too, is but a preliminary, for Prof. Raina hopes in a succeeding volume to publish a translation and comment on the content of the treatise, for all here concerns simply the readings of the text. The edition is a monument of acumen and toil, and, in all probability, brings us close to Dante's actual wording; but there are few, in America at least, who are likely to profit greatly by the enormous apparatus. The Italian Dante Society would incur the gratitude of a much larger body of students and scholars, and probably add to its own exchequer, if it would put in the market in due time a simple reprint of the text, with an Italian translation and a few useful notes. Then we must have a new and more accurate English version, and, after six centuries, Dante's suggestive little essay (it is not so different from a doctor's thesis of to-day) will be an open book to us all.

—Paris is stirred to some faint movements of interest or curiosity by the prospect of a new *revanche*. M. Pierre Denis, who was a close friend of Boulanger's, received from him the mission, perhaps the mandate, of taking satisfaction of some of the brave General's unfaithful followers when the proper moment should come. M. Pierre Denis believes that that moment has now arrived, and he is about to take his revenge in a somewhat novel but perfectly characteristic and befitting fashion. He has written a play, and the cowardly deserters are to be court-martialled and executed on the stage of the Nouveau-Théâtre. The piece is in rehearsal, and will be performed on the 16th and 18th of March. The representations will be "private," to avoid the Government censure, but a large number of tickets will be distributed in the political world and in the army. The whole life of Boulanger, from the beginning of his ministry to the final scene in the cemetery of Ixelles, is shown. Around the General appear many of the persons of mark who took part in the Boulangist movement. Some, like Rochefort, keep their true names: these are true friends. The names of others are slightly travestied to indicate their evil nature and bad qualities. The Baron de Mackau becomes the Baron de Kauma; M. Meyer, editor of the *Gaulois*, is called Lévy, director of the *Druide;* M. Mermeix is "éreinté" under the name of Icarus; M. Naquet and Count Dillon also get their deserts, and M. Pierre Denis himself plays the part of Peter the Hermit. Nothing could well be more appropriate than that the Boulangist melodrama should end on the boards of a theatre. In retrospect, and from one point of view, it seems not even a melodrama, but a comedy, or even a farce. Yet for a moment it was serious enough, for the vain, showy, sentimentalist that was Boulanger was once upon the point of precipitating the Third Republic into an abyss as deep as that in which the Second Empire sank.

—A writer in the Berlin *Boersen Courier* has just paid a visit to Eduard von Hartmann. The author of the 'Philosophy of the Unconscious' is now fifty-five years old, and walking (from his old misfortune in the military service) is so difficult to him that he never leaves the house except in an invalid chair. Nor is he able to write more than two or three hours a day, and sometimes he stops work on his books and seeks recreation in writing a few essays or newspaper articles. He has four daughters, only one of whom, he says, has any literary inclinations. He is opposed to current methods of education, his condemnation including the universities, which he calls mere "drill institutes," training-schools for specialists, unable to impart a general culture, which, he thinks, can be attained only by reading books on a large scale. Hartmann spoke rather contemptuously of Nietzsche as a philosopher. He said that both he and Nietzsche owed very much to the influence of Max Stirner; but while he (Hartmann) cheerfully admitted his own indebtedness, Nietzsche was silent regarding it. The visitor having remarked that the vogue of Hartmann's philosophical writings was largely owing to their lucid and popular style, the philosopher surprised him by retorting that he had indeed in his earlier writings taken pains to be as entertaining as possible, but that latterly he had abandoned the attempt to fix the interest by means of antitheses and illustrations, and had adopted the "military style"; explaining that by this term he meant the style used, *e. g.*, by Moltke and Kaiser Wilhelm I., and characterized by the greatest possible clearness, conciseness, directness, and lucidity. This style, he added, was favored by the higher officers in general.

RATZEL'S RACES OF MANKIND.

The History of Mankind. By Professor Friedrich Ratzel. Translated by A. J. Butler. With Introduction by E. B. Tylor, F.R.S. Macmillan Co. 1896. Colored plates, maps, and illustrations. Vol. I., pp. 486.

In introducing this work to the English public, Prof. Tylor characterizes it as a series of "outline sketches," and though he is restrained by virtue of his position from "attacking or defending Ratzel's views on the diffusion of the human species over the globe, the classification of mankind by race and language, and the geography of civilization," he nevertheless does not hesitate to recommend the work as "providing a solid foundation in anthropological study" indispensable to a beginner. Partial as this endorsement seems to be, it is, as far as it goes, "approbation from Sir Hubert Stanley"; and as regards at least the portion of the present volume which treats of "the American-Pacific group of races," it is probably safe to say that, in the sketches here given of the arts and industries, manners and customs, forms of government and religious beliefs of the inhabitants of the Pacific islands, we have the latest word in the story of their development.

Just and fitting as is this tribute, we must not forget that the attempts hitherto made to classify mankind in groups have failed, and that, consequently, ethnology does not yet take rank with the exact sciences. Color of skin, it has been truly said, is often in conflict with shape of skull, and shape of skull does not always agree with texture of hair. Even language, which is probably the best test, is not infallible; and, so far as culture is concerned, the differences existing between tribes of the same generic stock are often so pronounced that what may be safely predicated of one does not necessarily hold good of its nearest neighbor. For this reason, then, as well as because of the resemblances that are found to exist everywhere between peoples in the same stage of development, conclusions based upon resemblances or differences in physical conformation and culture—or perhaps it would be correct to say ethnographical generalizations of any and all kinds—are to be accepted with many grains of allowance. Moreover, it must be confessed that there is no uniformity among ethnologists in the meaning attached to certain terms. Race, for example, may be used in the sense of species, man being the genus; or it may signify, as it does with our author, a mere variety of the human species. Religion, too, is sometimes made to include myths, rites, beliefs, etc., etc.; but to assert (pp. 21, 39, 66, etc.) that among less civilized peoples "it is at once art and science, theology and philosophy, so that civilized life . . . contains nothing which is not embraced by it," is to extend its meaning beyond all limits; and when the term state or kingdom is applied to an insignificant band of savages, or when we are asked to believe (p. 120) that "female sovereigns" are to be found among American Indians, it is certainly time to call a halt and readjust our bearings.

These are some of the pitfalls that beset our path. They are, unfortunately, present in every similar investigation; and though in calling attention to them at this particular time it looks as if we meant to imply that our

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author was an especial offender and an unsafe guide, yet, in fact, nothing is farther from our intention. Undoubtedly some of his conclusions rest upon slight foundations, and there are statements which would gain in credibility if the sources of his information were given; but on the whole, even after allowing most liberally for the number of these objectionable features, it is probable that there are fewer errors than might have been expected in a work involving such an immense amount of patient research.

Being thus forewarned, we may now take up our author's story; and, following him back along the path over which man has progressed, we come, finally, in the Old World to two great divisions, the whites and Mongoloids in the northern hemisphere, the negroes in the southern. As there is only one species of man (pp. 9, 10), "the reunion into one real whole of the parts which have diverged after the fashion of sports" is said to be "the unconscious ultimate aim of all the movements" that have taken place since man began his wanderings. This may or may not be true—we do not pretend to decide—but, whether true or not, it is believed to have led to an admixture of the dark and light races along the line of contact, from the northwest point of Africa to the Fiji Islands. As a result of these various mixtures—the negro on one side and the white or Mongol on the other—we have a number of hybrid races scattered about over the earth, some of which have played a not inconsiderable part in their respective spheres. Among these the Malayo-Polynesians (or, as they are here styled, the American-Pacific group of races) are in some respects one of the most interesting. Originating in the southeastern corner of Asia, in a cross (or rather crosses) between the negro and the Malay branch of the great Mongol race, these peoples, under different names and of various degrees of intermixture, have spread over an area covering 210 degrees of longitude and 80 of latitude, thus virtually taking possession of the island world of the Indian and Pacific Oceans. In Madagascar as in Hawaii, and from Formosa to Easter Island, they are everywhere to be found. Even in Australia, where the negro element largely preponderates, traces of the Malay are said (pp. 216, 337) to be visible in the straight hair, prominent cheek-bones, and light-brown tint of the native population.

Whether, in the course of their wanderings, voluntary or enforced, these people reached America is an open question. Our author, however, has no doubt about the matter, for time and again he assures us that America must have been discovered from the west long before the Northmen came from the east; and, basing his conclusion upon the "extension of Asiatic characteristics" over both North and South America, he tells us (p. 154) that the route across Bering Straits was used in preference to that by way of the southeast Pacific. To this conclusion we do not especially object. In open boats, without a compass and guided by the stars and currents, the Malayo-Polynesian sailors had managed to circumnavigate rather more than half the world; and with Easter Island or Japan as a base, there is no reason why they, or some other people of Mongol stock, might not have closed the gap that separates those points from the mainland of America. But, while conceding this, it is well to remember that although, for years, individual Eskimos have passed to and fro across Bering Straits, yet there is no positive proof of intercourse between Polynesia and South America. Such evidence as there is of the fact is to be found in the facility of intercommunication; the resemblances in the arts, industries, manners and customs of the two peoples, and in the agreement which is said to subsist in their religion, their legends, and their bodily conformation. Numerous and striking as these similarities are admitted to be, they are not conclusive, for, granting the existence in eocene times of a land-bridge between Europe and America, it will be found that the reasons for believing in the "affinity" of our Indians with the Mongols are equally efficacious in establishing their connection with the Eurafricans, as Brinton ('Amer. Race,' pp. 30, 32) styles the primitive inhabitants of Western Europe. Indeed, it is possible to go even farther, and, bearing in mind the antiquity of man in this portion of the world, and "the similar manner in which similar needs are met, similar artistic ideas developed, and similar results attained" ('Prehistoric America,' pp. 524–5), we may claim with Dall that the prehistoric civilization of this continent, from "the shell-heap . . . to the structures of Mexico, Central America, and Peru," is distinctively American.

Be this as it may, it is not a point upon which it is safe to dogmatize, for with only one element of the comparison as yet in evidence, the data are not sufficient to justify a conclusion, whatever our author may say to the contrary. When, in a coming volume, we are treated to the promised account of our Indians, we shall be able to institute a series of comparisons between them and their neighbors in Asia and the Pacific Islands which may, perhaps, help us to a knowledge of "the derivation of the old American civilizations." Meanwhile a glance at the condition of these several races with the view of determining their respective positions in the scale of progress may not be without interest. Simple as this process seems to be, it has its difficulties owing to the fact that, although three of these races—the Polynesians, the Micronesians, and the Melanesians—are said (pp. 157-174) to belong to one ethnographical domain, yet, in reality, they differ from each other and among themselves to such an extent that no one picture can be made to serve for all. Unquestionably there is a close connection between them in language, and a certain similarity to be found in their manners, customs, arts, industries, religious beliefs, etc., just as there is among all peoples in the same stage of development. It is also probable that in many of the particulars in which they differ, the differences were of degree rather than of kind. On the other hand, however, the fact that pottery was manufactured in certain islands and not in others, and that only ten years ago (p. 183) "the people on the east shores of New Guinea were still completely in the stone age, while in the west the working of iron had long been known," is believed to indicate differences in culture of such a character that no believer in Morgan's scheme of classification would think of uniting in one and the same class peoples among whom such differences exist.

Other resemblances and differences there are, not, perhaps, of a radical character, but sufficiently pronounced to justify the separate sketch which our author devotes to each one of these races. Thus, for example, taking into consideration the entire group except the so-called American Indian, we find that in some regions agriculture was highly developed; in others it was less advanced; and then again there were localities (p. 337) in which it was unknown. The use of the bow, according to the map (p. 142), seems to have been confined within tortuous limits, as it was common in Melanesia, though practically unknown even in the neighboring islands and Australia. So, too, in their methods of building their houses and boats these peoples differed widely, as they did in their treatment of the women, including under this head marriage, mother-right, etc., as well as in their customs relating to taboo, tattooing, distribution of property, cannibalism, disposal of the dead, and in fact in many other respects. In religion, except in western Malaysia, where Mohammedan missionaries have been at work since the fifteenth century, animism may be said to have prevailed; and in San Christoval the couvade existed in connection with father-right. The quipu (pp. 192 401) was in use in Formosa and elsewhere, and the lasso (p. 418) in Luzon. As early as 1570, Manila possessed guns of native make, though in some quarters stone weapons and utensils are to-day still in use. Mounds were constructed as foundations for houses as well as burial-places, and in one case (p. 307) there is mention of an earthwork in the shape of a lizard.

But it is unnecessary to pursue this subject further. Enough has been said to show that these peoples differed from each other and among themselves; and it will also help us roughly to approximate the places they had respectively reached along the several lines over which it is necessary to pass in the progress from the age of stone to that of iron, or, in other words, from savagery to civilization. Indeed, in this latter respect, the western Malays may be said to have reached the goal, for although they have deteriorated in some of the arts since the time when Brahmin influence was paramount, yet, on the other hand, they now smoke opium (p. 433), counterfeit coin (p. 400), indulge occasionally in the practice of lynch law (p. 450), and insist upon reading the 'Age of Reason' and other free-thinking works (p. 400), much to the disgust of the English missionaries. With such a capacity for "annexing" what is euphemistically termed "foreign culture," what may we not expect of these peoples in the near future?

In conclusion, we may be permitted to call attention to the illustrations, plain and colored, with which the volume abounds. They are taken from specimens in the various European collections, and they convey, in a way no verbal description can attain to, clear and correct ideas of the arts and industries of the peoples with whom we are dealing.

THE COMSTOCK MINES.

The Story of the Mine, as illustrated by the great Comstock Lode of Nevada. By Charles Howard Shinn. D. Appleton & Co. 1896.

THE second contribution to the "Story of the West Series" is a history of mining on the Comstock Lode, and a description of the shifting social and economical conditions of the towns which sprang up upon and around that centre of intense mining activity. Mr. Shinn has done wisely in selecting a typical sample of Western mines and tracing its vicissitudes, rather than attempting to tell the whole story of Rocky Mountain mining within the compass of a single volume; and he has performed his work well. He has refrained from bewildering his lay readers, for whom the book is intended, with scientific terms and technical details. On the other

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hand, he has described succinctly and with considerable literary skill the Nevada Desert, while it was still, as Western Utah, under Mormon rule; the discovery of placer gold in the gulches and on the hillsides which derived their gravels from the decomposed vein matter of the great lode; and the struggles of the few early prospectors who were so near to fortune, and yet so far.

Neither Henry Thomas Paige Comstock, who earned immortality on about the same terms as Amerigo Vespucci, nor any of the little group of the first diggers and delvers on the slopes of Mount Davidson, drew a large prize in the great mining lottery they were establishing. In fact, so little did they deserve it that they were not aware that the heavy blue sand which inconveniently clogged their sluices, and which they washed away by the ton, was a pure silver ore. Men of greater foresight, and yet even more unfortunate, were the two Grosh brothers, who in 1857 traced the placer gold to its source, and made locations on the great lode; for one brother died of blood-poisoning from a wound at the mines, while the other perished in the snow while trying to cross the Sierra into California in search of financial assistance. One companion remains of these educated pioneers, Dr. Bucke, superintendent of the insane asylum of London, Ontario, but better known as a disciple and worshipper of Walt Whitman.

These men were the real discoverers of the Comstock. But mining commenced only after Harrison, a Truckee farmer, had had some of the troublesome sand assayed in Grass Valley, Cal., and learned that it carried more than $6,000 in gold and silver to the ton. Then commenced the rush from California into Nevada—at first over trails by pack animals, then by road, and lastly by rail. Two groups of mines, one at the northern extremity of the great lode and the other at the southern, were first opened, and some twelve or thirteen bodies of extraordinarily rich surface ore extracted. From these, between 1859 and 1870, about $145,000,000 of gold and silver was taken. But before the latter date the annual yield had fallen off from a maximum of $18,000,000 to $2,000,000; for the first period of exhaustion had already set in. During the first period of prosperity the most prominent figure on the Comstock was W. M. Stewart, afterwards United States Senator, who is said, out of the $10,000,000 wasted on litigation, to have received in fees alone $200,000 annually. But a still more fortunate lawyer was Gen. T. H. Walker, who is credited with receiving for legal services $4,000,000.

The decline, which was the inevitable result of such extravagance, combined with the metallurgical incapacity and want of foresight of the earlier miners and mill men, brought to the front a group of shrewd California financiers, led by William Sharon, the local manager of the Bank of California, and including W. A. Ralston, D. O. Mills, and others. By foreclosure and judicious purchase they, as the Ralston Mill and Mining Co., were for a time the despotic owners of the mills and most of the productive mines. Their supremacy was shaken through the discovery by the superintendent of the Crown Point Mine, the present picturesque Senator Jones, of a body of ore which was saved from the grasp of the Bank of California syndicate. But a still more formidable opposition was being created by another little knot of men of a type very different from the California bankers, viz., John R. Mackay, James C. Fair, two practical miners on the lode, and J. C. Flood and W. S. O'Brien, two saloon-keepers in San Francisco. Mr. Shinn tells how the former, by their intimate knowledge of every mine on Mount Davidson, and the possession of that wonderful instinct which leads some miners to diagnose the presence of ore as unerringly as an old physician puts his finger on the seat of disease, managed to obtain possession of some 1,300 feet of what was supposed to be comparatively worthless ground between the north and south chains of mines, and to sink a shaft on to the marvellous bonanza which soon made the "Consolidated Virginia and California" mines a by-word for inexhaustible wealth. But he is silent as to the important part the two others played in obtaining information from Comstock miners when their tongues wagged too freely over their cups. Mackay and Fair were, however, the guiding spirits of the quartet, and used the large fortunes amassed out of the Comstock in public enterprises which made them both conspicuous figures in the financial world till Fair's death.

The startling vicissitudes of the mines and of the men who at one moment literally rolled in wealth and were as suddenly plunged in poverty, can best be appreciated by the extraordinary vacillations in the value of the stocks of the prominent mines. Under Senator Jones's superintendence, Crown Point stock rose within a year from $2 to $1,828, and Belcher from $1.50 to $1,525. California, which started at $37 in September, 1874, sold for $780 in the January following, but fell by 1880 to $1.25. The 1,310 feet of the lode which the prescience of Mackay and Fair had induced them to stake their all upon, was worth in '69 less than $50,000, but was raised by their discovery of the great bonanza to $160,000,000 within five years.

The conception of the Sutro Tunnel brought into prominence another man of enormous energy and ability, who is still a power on the Pacific Coast. The tunnel was expected to be an inestimable boon to the mines, but did not reach them until 1878, when the great bonanza was exhausted and the mine workings had reached a depth far below that of the tunnel level, and had been abandoned on account of the poverty of the ore and the excessive cost of working when the temperature of the rock was 130° F. and of the water 170° F.

The history of the subsidiary interests and activities is hardly less interesting than the main theme, the more especially as they were generally instituted and conducted by men untrammelled by experience and precedent, and yet of such acute ingenuity and originality that they devised new methods as a matter of course to meet new requirements. The eighteen- to twenty-mule teams which were strung in one continuous column from Sacramento in California to the mines in Nevada were an invention of the Comstock. Fifteen thousand beasts of burden were at one time employed in freighting between these points; and no service to which the horse and mule have ever been attached displays so wonderfully, not only their endurance, but their intelligence and skill. An exhibition of eighteen thoroughly trained mules harnessed to a train of three wagons, in the hands of an expert Western teamster, would elicit more praise at a Madison Square Garden horse-show than the best four-in-hand driving by a gentleman coachman. Water had to be brought from a distance, and for the first time in the history of hydraulic engineering it was conveyed in iron pipes under a pressure of 800 pounds to the square inch. Lumber, to the amount of over fifty million feet a year, was buried annually in the mines as props and framework to support the walls and roofs of the large excavations; and here again, to reduce cost of transportation from the top of the mountain ranges, where alone pine grew, Comstock ingenuity invented the V-shaped flume in which it was shot down into the valley by the irresistible flow of water. To treat the ores, new machinery was devised and old methods modified, so that a new system of extracting silver still goes by the name of the "Washoe"; and since electricity has come into play for generating motive power, a plant which might have been a model for that at Niagara has been running for years deep underground on the Comstock. The dynamos, set in a great excavated chamber at the intersection of a shaft by the Sutro Tunnel, are driven by turbines moved by the volume of water which descends from the upper levels of the mine.

Thus this extraordinary mine not only produced more gold and silver, but has called forth more inventive genius and has given birth to more men who have become notable in the domains of politics and finance, than any other, not only in this country, but perhaps in the world. And the rank and file of toilers in these mines have exhibited in the performance of their daily task more than even the miner's habitual enthusiasm and endurance. But, better still, when occasions of extraordinary danger arose, the Comstock miner never flinched from facing death with more than the courage of the soldier on the battle-field. His heroism was rather that of the volunteer of "the forlorn hope." In the Western miner we find exaggerated the faults and virtues of his class the world over, but one notable trait he certainly possesses to an eminent degree—generosity. We have known the men of a single mine, and that not a big one, to subscribe $700 to send to a country sanitarium in the East a lad who had been injured in the mine, and who was pining away in the confinement of the county hospital.

The story of the Comstock cannot be exactly duplicated in all its romantic details and its vicissitudes by that of any other mining district; but almost as interesting a book could be written of the underground and surface life of such towns as Leadville, Butte, and Tombstone. At any rate, it would be well if we in the East appreciated better than we do the bright side of Western life. The shady side has been too often described in darker colors than should be employed to depict the average condition of Western society, which is, after all, made up from the most energetic and adventurous elements of the East. As long as the West offers excitement, so long will the class that frets under the restraints of highly organized society seek the West. Only when the West becomes more thickly populated, and when every man there must cease to be a law unto himself, will the restless elements of our Eastern population turn as of yore to the sea. One cause of the decadence of our mercantile marine will then be removed. As it is, sailors compose a very large proportion of our Western mining population.

A STUDY OF CROWDS.

The Crowd: A Study of the Popular Mind. By Gustave Le Bon. Macmillan Co. 1896.

THE French work of which 'The Crowd' is a translation is entitled 'Psychologie des Foules,' and belongs, as the author affirms in his preface, to no school. It is put forward,

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however, as a scientific book, and consequently, as it stands by itself, it must be examined as a scientific inquiry in which the author not only discusses a subject, but invents and explains the method of investigation as well. M. Le Bon has, in fact, a method of his own for studying the popular mind, which is so peculiar as to defy not only classification, but even definition. At bottom it rests upon a single postulate—that a crowd is not a mere collection of individuals, but an organism which is governed by laws of its own; it follows that these laws, under which the organism acts, must be studied and analyzed. The author, therefore, proceeds to describe crowds; the present age being, in his opinion, the era of crowds, as opposed to the era of the individual. He is careful to insist, however, that when he talks of crowds he does not mean any casual collection of human beings brought together by chance, but what he calls a "psychological" crowd—*i. e.*, a crowd in which "the sentiments and ideas of all the persons in the gathering take one and the same direction, and their conscious personality vanishes"; in which "a collective mind" is formed; a crowd which "forms a single being, and is subjected to the law of the mental unity of crowds."

To produce such a crowd, "the simultaneous presence of a number of individuals on one spot" is not necessary. An entire nation may become a psychological crowd under certain circumstances, while hundreds of men gathered together by accident may not constitute a psychological crowd at all. Besides this, a crowd may be composed of dissimilar elements —men, women, children, lawyers, Unitarians, and chiropodists—in which case it is a "heterogeneous" crowd. An instance of a homogeneous crowd would be a sect, a caste, or a class. This book deals with heterogeneous crowds. However composed, there is no crowd in the author's signification of the term until there is a "provisional being," possessed of a sort of "collective mind" which "makes those who compose it feel, think, and act in a manner quite different from that in which each individual of them would feel, think, and act were he in a state of isolation"—just as in chemistry certain elements, when brought into contact with one another, "combine to form a new body possessing properties quite different from those of the bodies that have served to form it."

Into the causes which, according to the author, produce these curious results we have no space to go in detail, but M. Le Bon mentions hypnotism and suggestion as among them, his idea being that, by some process, the individual in a crowd is impelled in a given direction to do certain acts which as an individual he would never do. Mobs composed of respectable men lynch and hang without impartial trial and without sifting evidence; juries bring in verdicts which each individual juryman disapproves; a legislative body will pass a measure to which each member of it is, as a whole, opposed.

Such is the theory; it is followed by a description of the characteristics of crowds, with historical illustrations of the behavior of crowds, much of which is good. When, however, we come to ask (and this is, after all, the test question in matters of this kind), How will a crowd act under given circumstances? we find that the author can tell us nothing more than that it will act in an irrational, irresponsible, and emotional manner. It may act under the influence of a lofty emotion, as did the crowds which followed Peter the Hermit; it may act under the influence of very different passions, as did the Septembriseurs; but what any given crowd will do, no man can tell.

Now, all this we knew before we ever heard of hypnotism, or suggestion, or the law of mental unity, and we are obliged to declare our opinion that M. Le Bon's book is partly a description, in terms of his own, of traits of crowds known to every reader of history, and partly pure fancy. It will be noticed that we give him the full benefit of any doubt that may be suggested by his own system. We admit—though we do not pretend to know how it can be—that a crowd may be an aggregation of individuals not gathered together in any one spot, and that a "psychological" crowd is such an aggregation manifesting the traits which are required to bring it within the limits of the term employed. But, with this concession made, we must insist that his fundamental postulate that a crowd is an organism, governed by laws of its own, independent of the individuals who compose it, is a pure figure of speech. It often *seems* as if a mob were a sentient being following a law of mental unity, but the real reason why a crowd acts so differently from the way in which the individuals composing it would act is capable of explanation without any symbolism of this kind whatever. That reason is that each individual in it who is pursuing some common object, feels as if freed for the time being from responsibility for his acts, and is conscious of power greatly increased.

Very few people who have not devoted a good deal of attention to the subject have any idea how the whole tenor of their life and conduct depends on the constant sense of responsibility, either to opinion or to law, or to both, or what savages and animals they may become if this is withdrawn. Occasionally it is withdrawn from a number of people gathered together for some common purpose, and then in a moment the common purpose is carried out as if by wild beasts, or lunatics, or enthusiasts, without regard to consequences. If the purpose is interrupted by the police or by troops, it is abandoned with the same sense of irresponsibility that it is undertaken, and the individuals who compose the crowd run off as fast as their legs will carry them. Why? Because numbers produce a sense of irresponsible power which lasts only as long as the sense of power lasts.

Almost every trait or characteristic of crowds and mobs can be matched by instances of the same traits displayed by individual tyrants, freed from responsibility and animated by strong emotions. Why is it that dictators and despots have been notorious throughout history for murder, rape, robbery, fire, and slaughter? Simply because they have not been accountable for their acts. Why is it that the constitutional executives of our day are generally just in their dealings with the rights of subjects and citizens? Simply because they are answerable for their acts. In other words, a single person, suddenly feeling the sense of irresponsible power, shows just the same traits that we see in mobs.

We prefer our explanation of the matter to M. Le Bon's because it is simple and adequate, and saves all hypothesis, and accords with what we know of the nature of man. The other is mysterious, and, consequently, although expressed in terms of science, only pseudo-scientific. One additional proof of this is, that the author's speculations lead to nothing. We have searched his book in vain for any conclusion outside of mere description of phenomena. If it were really true that the law of mental unity actually compelled a jury to render a wrong verdict, surely jury trial ought at once to be abandoned. But it does not, because juries are not wholly free from responsibility. The author seems to be in favor of all existing institutions because, though all collective action is the action of a psychological crowd of some kind, the action of some other psychological crowd (like a caste, or a sect, or a bench of magistrates) might be worse. But this is all speculation, unless we have some principle to guide us, and the only principle laid down—that of the entity of the crowd separate and apart from that of the individuals who compose it—can lead to nothing, for it is a metaphor.

We have examined the author's theory at some length because it belongs to a large and constantly increasing class of speculations on human society which mislead the public into believing that they represent "science." What is called "sociology" is made up almost altogether of such speculations, often the work, as in this case, of men of unusual but misdirected ability.

Aspects of Fiction, and Other Ventures in Criticism. By Brander Matthews. Harper & Bros. 1896.

Mr. Matthews's volume justifies the risk that attends collective publication of short papers written, some for a special audience, and all with that keen relish for professional topics which is common to men who love the work they live by. The range is wide, from the Greek drama to the fiction of Mr. Kipling, and the whole is better than any of the parts. It is unfortunate that the very first essay, "American Literature," urges two points with a fervor which it is hard to share. For the sake of truth it is certainly well that American literature shall not be spoken of as an indigenous plant without ancestry or living relations. The phrase "American branch of English literature" has no defect except clumsiness; but the proposal to call everything written in Great Britain during the last century *British literature* implies a too finical devotion to accuracy and a profane disregard for tradition. The inhabitants of the British Islands, however, "have the pull," and, since for several centuries they have agreed to call their literature English, they will doubtless continue to do so as long as there is a man left to read or write.

Going behind literature to language, we are led to infer that the British have set up a claim to exclusive ownership of English, have intimated, with their usual arrogance, that the language has only been lent to America, and may even have threatened to take it back at their pleasure and leave Americans to struggle with Choctaw or any other gibberish they can lay their tongues to. Mr. Matthews disputes this preposterous claim, displaying an agitation which it is extremely difficult to understand. If the British made us a loan of the language so much prized by them, why, observing our disrespectful treatment of it, have they not taken it back long ago? If they mean to take it away, is their dilatoriness explained by a wish to appropriate thoroughly our extensions and improvements before shutting down on us? If there is no danger at all, why does Mr. Matthews alarm us by proclaiming joint ownership as vehemently as if demanding international recognition? Is there any security in the reflection that if the British let us have it

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a little longer, when they come to demand it they will never be able to prove the loan? Here they may fall on a root, there on an analogy, but they can never get their pound of flesh in a lump, so they will go away defeated and angry, with no recourse but declamation setting forth the infernal ingenuity of Americans in the matter of repudiating debt.

In this discussion of the ownership of language is not the author a little lacking in that sense of humor which he defines so clearly in his pleasant paper on "The Penalty of Humor"? And had the sense quite abandoned him when he endorsed Mark Twain's silly diatribe against Sir Walter Scott? The wickedness of Sir Walter as discovered and exposed by Mr. Howells and Mark Twain makes one of the most horrifying revelations of our time. Mr. Howells spoke of him as a corrupter of youth (Republican, American youth), and Mark Twain said he had done "measureless harm," and that he was responsible for the duels, the rhetoric, and the comprehensive humbug of the South before the war. It is astonishing that Mr. Matthews should wish to belittle his theory about the reasons for the worthlessness of ante-bellum literature by quoting such nonsense at length. If he shares the convictions and feelings of his distinguished compatriots, how can he with conscience cherish a tenderness for Mr. Stevenson and tolerate Mr. Lang? Granting to Mr. Stevenson the advantage insisted on that "he was also a master of the craft [story-telling], a loving, devoted, untiring student of the art, which Scott was not," Mr. Matthews cannot consistently urge such acquired grace as more than compensation for a natural predisposition and an unquenchable desire to imitate Scott's corrupt practices—not unless he should declare boldly that the harm as well as the charm of a story lies in the way it is told, and that Sir Walter's wickedness is all in his imperfect, discursive, haphazard method.

This question of method runs through all the essays, which are therefore full of instruction for the craft. Though Mr. Matthews is an ardent advocate of latter-day fiction, what he calls the "Inevitable," he refrains from scolding writers and readers of the other sorts. His belief in the superior educational value of "inevitable" fiction is common among authors of that school, and must surely add immensely to their esteem and admiration for each other. To the masses, all their talk about education through fiction is as bewildering as if their clergymen were to insist on the amusing and mirth-inspiring quality of sermons, and to commend their perusal for purposes of distraction. Indeed, the only public that takes the Inevitables quite at their own estimate, is made up of groups of ladies whom nature has not attuned to lightness and whom circumstances have rendered inimical to frivolity.

Mountaineering and Exploration in the Japanese Alps. By the Rev. Walter Weston, Member of the Asiatic Society of Japan; Member of the Geographical Society of Tokyo, Japan; Late British Chaplain, Kobe, Japan. With maps and 35 illustrations. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

SINCE the recent and rapid rise of Japan to prominence it has been possible to sell a book about that country on the strength of its author having once lunched at Yokohama. Yet few of the volumes with which the publishing markets of London and New York have been congested touch more than the fringe of the principal island. Hardly one western reader in a hundred is familiar with the fact that Japan has its mountaineering associations, numbering in the case of the Tomoe-kō several thousand members. The important political centres lie on the seaboard, and the casual bookmaker considers that his duty is done when he disposes of them. The hill country of the interior will hardly become a hackneyed subject these ten years.

Mr. Weston is the first member of the Alpine Club to write an extensive book of adventure in the higher mountains of Japan. An occasional tourist finds his way to the top of Asama-yama, and Mr. William Gowland has traversed the Hida-Shinshū range; but Mr. Weston has the field to himself when he essays to write from the standpoint of Ball, Whymper, and Conway. Not a single predecessor has dated his preface at the Eggishorn. Like all explorers who nowadays go far afield, he makes notes on botany, geology, and archæology. Like his congeners, also, he uses the Swiss Alps as a touchstone:

"And so we bade our farewell to the Alps of Japan. They do not, it is true, display the glories of glacier-shrouded peaks, and the scale on which they are built is only two-thirds that of the famous Alps of Switzerland. But the picturesqueness of their valleys, and the magnificence of the dark and silent forests that clothe their massive flanks, surpass anything I have met with in European Alpine wanderings."

A great deal is implied by the statement that one can dispense altogether with ice axe and rope in the ascent of Japanese mountains. Even the sharpest of them, Yarigatake, "the spear-peak," is an alpenstock summit. Facility of conquest is sure to breed contempt among the climbing fraternity, and we doubt whether many of the élite will be tempted by Mr. Weston's descriptions to visit Japan for the express purpose of breaking new ground. It is not altitude alone that counts. Fuji-San stands up well with Sifton and Cook in the southern island of New Zealand, and is actually higher than Mount Assiniboine in the Canadian Rockies. It is comparatively unattractive to the climber from being a mere volcanic cone without foothills. Mr. Whymper found mountains of a similar type in the Andes unprofitable, although they overtop the Caucasus. At any rate Fuji stands alone in point of altitude. A difference of 2,000 feet separates it from its nearest rivals. Mr. Weston climbed the "matchless mountain," but the most entertaining part of his narrative is that which deals with the central range from Ō Renge-San to Ontake. In the summer of 1894 he traversed it from north to south.

In this central range, which seldom soars above 10,000 feet, Yarigatake is to be singled out for its physical features and Ontake for its religious associations. The former peak is somewhat more than the Dent de Jaman and considerably less than the Matterhorn. It rises almost straight from the plain of Matsumoto, and every foot of its stature counts. Mr. Weston tried it without success in 1892, foiled partly by his ambition to ascend from a difficult side and partly by the weather. The next year he tried again and triumphed. The top of Yarigatake, formidable at a distance, seems to have afforded no special difficulty. "The smooth steep slabs, dangerous enough in wet weather, were now perfectly dry, and convenient cracks and ledges gave good hand and foothold everywhere. . . . The actual summit is a narrow platform a few yards long, dropping on the east and west in perpendicular cliffs, and affording a prospect grand and impressive in the extreme." While Yarigatake is climbed only at rare intervals and by persons of adventurous spirit, a shrine on the summit of Ontake is annually frequented by hundreds of white-robed pilgrims who seek by the ascent to obtain purification of the spirit. They are often grouped into societies of a quasi-religious and and a quasi-social character. The members pay an initiation fee and regular dues. When the season for pilgrimage arrives, lots are drawn, and those whom chance designates go at the cost of the society. Volunteer members may go too, but at their own expense. Ontake is a volcano, long dormant, though now and then able to show signs of potential activity. Mr. Weston ascended it from the Fukushima side in August, the month of most general pilgrimage, and furnishes a graphic account of what the pilgrims wore, said, and did. Valuable photographs of a whole company and of the shrine at the summit are reproduced in full-page illustrations. We very much wish that Mr. Weston could have secured a photograph of the *nakaza* whose hypnotic trance he describes.

Although a good many professional hunters are to be found in the Japanese Alps, the local guide is seldom efficient. Mr. Weston tried Kasadake three times before he could overcome the peasants' objection to aid him. In the end he found a hunter of big game, Nakashima, who not only consented to go along, but helped him to elude the villagers of Onsen when they threatened to interfere with the plan. Nakashima explained the reluctance of his countrymen by unfolding their belief in a mountain genius who sends down storms upon the valley if a stranger penetrates his sanctuary. He himself, though not sharing the superstition, revered the mountain deity, lighted candles to him during the ascent, and offered supplication with folded hands.

We should give a false impression of Mr. Weston's 'Mountaineering and Exploration' if we dwelt upon the first branch of the title, to the complete exclusion of the second. The author, besides climbing, went through many remote districts on his way to the peaks, and discourses about the country folk at great length. We are unable to present any portion of the information which he has collected, but we can sincerely say that it is fresh in quality and well arranged. The book as a whole is less exciting than many recent contributions to the library of sport and geographical research, but it will bring fresh credit to the zeal and energy of the Alpine Club.

The Literature of Music. By James E. Matthew. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

IF Mr. Matthew (who is also the author of a 'Manual of Musical History') had called his new work 'My Musical Library,' his title would have been more modest and less misleading than the one he chose. He says in his preface that as long ago as 1839 C. F. Becker wrote a musical bibliography comprising upwards of 6,500 titles, and that probably the most important and best known musical library is that formed by Fétis, containing about 4,200 titles, and now the property of the Belgian nation. Mr. Matthew's collection, he tells us, slightly exceeds that. It is no doubt a most interesting collection, judging from his description of it, but in some of its departments it is ludicrously incomplete. Thus, in the chapter on 'Dictionaries of Music,' no

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mention is made of Riemann's 'Musik-Lexicon,' by far the best and most reliable work of its kind in existence; indeed, this prolific and admirable German writer is represented only by his 'Opern-Lexicon.' Quite as strange is the fact that much the most widely read of contemporary German writers on music, who has written historical, æsthetic, and critical works, some of which have passed through a dozen editions—Dr. Hanslick—is not even mentioned in the index. Absolutely inexcusable is the omission of all reference to Liszt's important writings, only one of the six volumes (the 'Chopin') being referred to. Nay, *horribile dictu*, the literary works of Schumann, Weber, Wagner, and Berlioz—the most valuable books on music in existence—are not mentioned! Under such circumstances it is not to be wondered at that although the author seems to have been informed by a kind friend (perhaps the proof-reader) that "the Wagner literature alone forms a large library," his own list includes only nine articles in it. Mr. Matthew's library apparently ceased growing fifteen years ago; but, such being the case, he should not, as already suggested, have called his book 'The Literature of Music.'

A student who wants to know the titles of the most important books on musical subjects will find the 104-page 'Musical Literature List,' published by the Scribners, much more up to date and useful. It is to the antiquarian and curiosity-hunter that Mr. Matthew's book appeals chiefly; and such will find it an interesting guide. The scope of the book is indicated by the heads of the twelve chapters, which are as follows: The Literature of Ancient Music; The Mediæval Writers on Music; Early Works on Music after the Invention of Printing; Musical Literature in the Seventeenth Century; Musical Literature of the Eighteenth Century; Histories of Music; Biography; Dictionaries of Music; Literature of Sacred Music; Literature of the Opera; Literature of Musical Instruments; Literature of Music as a Science; Bibliography of Music.

A Dictionary of Chemical Solubilities. By Arthur Messinger Comey. Macmillan. 1896.

THIS is one of those useful compilations of data whose making represents an enormous amount of painstaking labor. It is the lineal successor of Prof. Storer's 'First Outlines of a Dictionary of Solubilities of Chemical Substances,' which appeared in 1864, in a limited edition, and has never been revised or reprinted. Since then, the growth of chemical science has been so great that when Dr. Comey undertook the present work, a mere revision of Prof. Storer's book was out of the question, and it was necessary to start afresh. This Dr. Comey has done, and in 515 pages presents the collected data in regard to "all analyzed inorganic substances," including the oxides and sulphide of carbon, the carbonates and the simple and complex cyanides. We trust that we are right in the inference that a second volume dealing with the solubilities of organic substances may be looked for from the same source.

In its application in this work, "solubility" is given its largest and loosest meaning, and chemical reactions which yield solutions of one or more of the resulting products are included along with cases of simple "physical" solubility. Thus, the solubility of iron and other metals in acids is given in detail. This broad use of the term, however, does not justify the 'Chemical Solubilities' of the title, which is certainly misleading, and we see no reason for its substitution for the 'Solubilities of Chemical Substances,' which Prof. Storer employed.

The material is arranged alphabetically, and the difficulties which might arise from such arrangement in the present somewhat confused state of chemical nomenclature have been lightened, as far as possible, by abundant cross-references. The solubility of each substance in water is first given, then the specific gravity of aqueous solutions, when such data exist, and their boiling-points; following this is the solubility in inorganic acids, in alkali and salt solutions, and finally in organic substances. It is manifestly impracticable for the compiler of such a work to attempt to verify experimentally the statements of different observers, or to decide between contradictory data in most instances; so all data with any claim to reliability have been given, with references to the original sources so far as possible. The work has been carried out with the care and minute attention essential to success in dealing with such an enormous mass of detail, and appears to be commendably free from errors and omissions.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ames, Prof. J. S. Theory of Physics. Harpers. $1.60.
Baskervill, W. M. Southern Writers. Sidney Lanier. Nashville, Tenn.: Barbee & Smith. 30c.
Beauty and Hygiene. Harpers. 75c.
Benton, Emily E. The Happy Method in Numbers for Little People. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Bolsgobey, Fortuné. Fontenay the Swordsman. Rand, McNally & Co.
Brodhead, Eva W. Bound in Shallows. Harpers. $1.25.
Conner, P. S. P. The Home Squadron under Commodore Conner in the War with Mexico. Philadelphia: The Author.
Cust, Lionel. Albert Dürer's Paintings and Drawings. [Portfolio Monographs.] London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Daniell, M. G. New Latin Composition. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.
Educational Review. Vol. XII. June-December, 1896. Henry Holt & Co.
Gordon, Rev. G. A. Immortality and the New Theodicy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Harrington, Prof. K. P., and Tolman, Prof. H. C. Greek and Roman Mythology. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.
Hazard, D. M. C. Marriage Chimes for True Lovers. Boston: Pilgrim Press. 75c.
James, Henry. The Spoils of Poynton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Keightley, S. R. The Last Recruit of Clare's. Harpers. $1.50.
Knoke, Prof. F. Das Varuslager im Habichtswalde. Berlin: R. Gaertner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Lang, Andrew. Pickle the Spy; or, The Incognito of Prince Charles. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Mason, Dr. R. O. Telepathy and the Subliminal Self. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Pollok, Col. Fifty Years' Reminiscences of India. Edward Arnold.
Rabb, Kate M. National Epics. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Rhoscomyl, Owen. For the White Rose of Arno. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Romanes, G. J. Essays. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. Louis-Napoléon et Mademoiselle de Montijo. Paris: Dentu; New York: Meyer Bros. & Co.
See, T. J. J. Researches on the Evolution of the Stellar Systems. Vol. I. Lynn, Mass.: The Nichols Press.
Stuart, Esmé. Arrested: A Novel. Appletons. $1.
The Evergreen: A Northern Seasonal. The Book of Winter. Edinburgh: Patrick Geddes; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Thompson, N. G., and Cannan, F. L. Hand in Hand Figure Skating. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Thoroddsen, Th. Geschichte der Isländischen Geographie. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.

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